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This study was designed to determine whether a difference in the way teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influences teacher role perception and preference for leadership styles. Variables of age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level were examined. The sample of 390 teachers from 3 California schools and 380 from 3 Oklahoma schools was selected on the basis of the independent variable, teacher negotiation with the board of education. The professional and bureaucratic orientation of teachers was an intervening variable. Data obtained through questionnaires were analyzed with use of the chi-square test for independent samples, and the Kendall coefficient of concordance. Findings indicate that in schools where negotiations for salary and policy occur, the teachers more frequently perceive their role as being less professional and less bureaucratic. None of the variables, however, appear to affect leadership style preferences; nondirective, permissive style is preferred for the role of the principal and charismatic style for the role of superintendent. Included are 76 statistical tables, a 66-item bibliography, and the instruments used: Leadership Style Inventory and Views of Teacher Work Role. (JS)

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A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY
RAY LON STOUT
Norman, Oklahoma
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ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCE ON TEACHER LEADERSHIP PERCEPTION

Project No. 7-G-002
Grant No. OE G-1-7-070002-5240

RAY LON STOUT

April, 1968

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Norman, Oklahoma

SP001528

ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCE ON TEACHER LEADERSHIP PERCEPTION

APPROVED BY

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DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCE ON TEACHER LEADERSHIP PERCEPTION

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Certification standards for teachers have risen significantly during the past twenty years[1] and teachers are becoming increasingly professionalized.[2] With the increased training and professionalization of teachers, certain organizational strains which accrue to professional persons in bureaucratic organizations should be of special significance to administrators.

It is not uncommon for an administrator to discover that he must attempt to fulfill the expectations of two or more reference groups. While there appears to be no wholly satisfactory solution to this administrative dilemma, an administrator who understands his staff's perception of leadership styles should be in a position to better fulfill his roles as an educational leader.

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[1] Ronald G. Corwin, "Militant Professionalism, Initiative and Compliance in Public Education," Sociology of Education, XXXIII, No. 4, Summer, (1965), pp. 310-331.

[2] Earl Armstrong and T. M. Stinett, A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States, 1961 (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1959).

Katz, Maccoby, and Morse[3] have emphasized the fact that working with people in groups is a complicated undertaking and that there are many differences among groups which are of crucial importance to the leader. It seems that an understanding of these differences by superintendents and principals could be a prerequisite for success.

Collective activity among school employees is increasing, and the goal of this activity seems to be an attempt by teacher organizations to achieve shared control over policy formulation and administrative decision making.[4] The desire of teachers to participate in major policy decisions affecting them is not new. In 1950 Moscowitz[5] found that more than fifty per cent of his sample of several hundred teachers in New York City desired participation in such educational decisions as budget preparation and the planning of system-wide staff meetings.

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[3] Daniel Katz, Nathan Maccoby, and Nancy C. Morse, Productivity, Supervision, and Morale in an Office Situation (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1950).

[4] Charles A. Perry and Wesley Wilsman, "A Survey of Collective Activity Among Public School Teachers," Educational Administration Quarterly, II (Spring, 1966), pp. 150-151.

[5] S. D. Moscowitz, "The Teachers' Council and Democratic Administration," The National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin, XXXIV (January, 1950), p. 136.

The problem of role conflict in social systems has attracted well deserved attention. The significance of the concept of role conflict has been recognized by Corwin,[6] Ben-David,[7] Solomon,[8] and Reissman.[9] The same professional and bureaucratic-employee dilemma that has confronted other vocations is the same one that is before teachers today.

In discussing the importance of the professions to social structure, Parsons[10] says that the professional type is the institutional framework in which many of our most important social functions are carried on and that teaching is one of the practical applications of the pursuit of science and liberal learning. He further suggests that the comparison of the professional and business structure in their relations to the problem of individual motivation is is a very promising approach to certain general problems of the relations of individual motivation to institutional structures.

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[6] Ronald G. Corwin, "The Professional Employee: A Study of Conflict in Nursing Roles," American Journal of Sociology, LXVI, No. 6 (May 1961), pp. 604-615.

[7] Joseph Ben-David, "Professional Role of the Physician in Bureaucratized Medicine: A Study in Role Conflict," Human Relations, IV (1958), pp. 254-74.

[8] David N. Solomon, "Professional Persons in Bureaucratic Organizations," in Walter Reed Army Institute of Research, Symposium of Preventive and Social Psychiatry (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1957), pp. 253-266.

[9] Leonard Reissman, "A Study of Role Conception in a Bureaucracy," Social Forces, XXVII (March, 1959), pp. 305-10.

[10] Talcott Parsons, "The Professions and Social Structure," Essays in Sociological Theory, revised edition, (New York: The Free Press, 1964), p. 48.

Parsons[11] is of the opinion that Weber has thrown together two essentially different types in the formulation of the characteristics of bureaucratic organization. Weber's technical competence[12] as a basis of bureaucratic efficiency, and his statements that bureaucratic administration is "essentially control by means of Knowledge"[13] leads Parsons to suggest that the terms "knowledge" and "technical competence" point toward the professional expert. This distinction would alter considerably the perspective of Weber's analysis on a number of empirical problems.

Corwin[14] suggests that there is a consistent pattern of conflict between teachers and school administrators over control of work, and that professionalization is a militant process. Traditionally this issue has been viewed in a slightly different form - the individual versus the organization. Whyte[15] viewed the "organization man" as performing without regard for his own volition and in analyzing several novels, Friedsam[16] found the hero in each to be a bureaucrat. In the field of social science, the work of Argyris is based on a presumed conflict between the needs of the individual and the demands of the organization.[17]

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[11] Talcott Parsons, Max Weber: The Theory of Social and Economic Organization. Ed., Talcott Parsons (London: The Free Press of Glencoe, Collier - Macmillian Limited, 1947), p. 58.

[12] Ibid., p. 335.

[13] Ibid., p. 337.

[14] Ronald G. Corwin, "Professional Persons in Public Organizations," Educational Administration Quarterly, II (Spring, 1966).

This century has seen bureaucracy become the prevalent form of organization in American society. Drucker[18] has used the term "employee" society to emphasize the relationship between employers and employees as being the determinant of the character of the society.

Corwin[19] says that the social forces which produced the bureaucratic society also created alternate forms of organization. The professional-employee society being one alternate form in which the fundamental tension is not between the individual and the system but between parts of the system - between the professional and bureaucratic principles of organization.

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[15] William H. Whyte, The Organization Man (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1956).

[16] Hiram J. Friedsam, "Bureaucrats as Heroes," Social Forces, XXXII (March, 1954), pp. 269-274.

[17] Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), pp. 50-51.

[18] Peter F. Drucker, "The Employee Society," American Journal of Sociology, LXIII (January, 1952), pp. 358-363.

[19] Corwin, "The Professional Employee: A Study of Conflict in Nursing Roles," pp. 604-615.

Bidwell[20] interprets Waller as suggesting that the intrinsic nature of teaching runs counter to the bureaucratic principles of school organization and that to perform adequately in his office the teacher is forced to violate the rules of performance. These rules of performance are the rules of the bureaucratic administrative hierarchy and the violation of these rules would be a factor of the professional dimension influence.

In a study of role conflict among 296 graduate and student nurses, Corwin's findings lead him to conclude that:

> Diploma and degree graduates organize the bureaucratic-professional roles differently . . . because of greater independence of collegiate programs from hospital administration, bureaucratic principles are less relevant there, while professional principles are stressed more in the diploma program. There is evidence that diploma and degree graduates organize the bureaucratic-professional roles differently and adjust to conflict of roles in systematically different ways.[21]

These findings suggest that the organization does have some influence in determining an individual's organization-role.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine whether a difference in the way that teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influences teacher role perception and preference for styles of leadership. In addition, the variables of sex, age, teaching experience, and teaching level were examined to determine the extent to which they influence perceived roles and leadership style preference. Four sub-problems of this study were:

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[20] Charles Bidwell, "The School as a Formal Organization," Handbook of Organizations, James G. March, ed., (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1956), p. 979.

[21] Corwin, "The Professional Employee: A Study of Conflict in Nursing Roles," pp. 604-615.

(1) To determine whether differences in the way teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influence teacher organization-role perceptions.

(2) To determine whether differences in the way teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influence leadership style preference.

(3) To determine whether differences in organization-roles influence leadership style preference.

(4) To determine whether differences in sex, age, teaching experience, teaching level, organization role, and school membership influence preferences for the ideal leadership style.

Need for the Study

With the advent of collective action by teachers to achieve shared control over policy formulation and administrative decision-making, it was felt by this writer that a better understanding of leadership style perceptions held by teachers is desirable. That is, it is desirable if administrators are to function somewhere between the polar positions of bureaucratic authority necessary for co-ordination and uniformity, on the one hand, and the hierarchical restraints that interfere with operations by engendering profound feelings of inequality and apathy, on the other.[22]

Hypotheses Tested

Ho_1 There is no statistically significant difference in the organization-role distribution of teachers according to school membership, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level.

Ho_2 The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in an "open" group is a matter of chance.

Ho_3 The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in a "closed" group is a matter of chance.

Ho_4 The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in a group composed of all teachers is a matter of chance.

Ho_5 The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by a combined group of all teachers is a matter of chance.

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[22] Peter M. Blau, The Dynamics of Bureaucracy (Chicago: The University of Chicago, 1955), pp. 218-219.

Ho_6 There is no statistically significant agreement on the ideal leadership style between teachers according to school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level.

The null-hypotheses were designated by the letter H with a sub zero.

Limitations of the Study

Certain limitations should be kept in mind while interpreting results of this study. The most serious are those which are inherent in an ex post facto design, namely the inability to manipulate independent variables and to exercise control over randomization of subjects.

Another limitation has to do with the danger of uncritically generalizing the findings. This is, in part, due to the lack of control pointed out in the preceding paragraph. Though the study dealt with a specific type of population, no statistical evidence is available to indicate that this population is typical of any larger group of teachers either locally or nationally.

This study was limited to include only teachers of six selected school systems, three in Oklahoma and three in California. Central office personnel, supervisors, counselors, assistant principals, and part-time teachers were excluded from this study. This study was limited to the variables of school-membership, organization-role, sex, age, teaching experience, and teaching level.

Definition of Terms

Professional role:[23] Stresses primary loyalty to clients and colleagues, skill based on theoretical knowledge, and acceptance of responsibility for making policy decisions.

Bureaucratic role:[24] Stresses standardization of work, a centralized decision making process, and a task-oriented type of specialization.

Organization-role: One of the four classifications determined by the rating on the Professional and Bureaucratic-Employee Conception Scale: Functional bureaucrat, job bureaucrat, service bureaucrat, and alienated.

Functional bureaucrat: A person who is simultaneously more professional and less bureaucratic.

Service bureaucrat: A person who is simultaneously more professional and more bureaucratic.

Job bureaucrat: A person who is simultaneously less professional and more bureaucratic.

Alienated: A person who is simultaneously less professional and less bureaucratic.

Open group: A teacher organization that formally negotiates with the board of education on matters of salary and policy.

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[23] Corwin, "Militant Professionalism, Initiative and Compliance in Public Education," p. 316.

[24] *Ibid.*

Closed group: A teacher organization that does not formally negotiate with the board of education on matters of salary and policy.

School membership: Membership in either an "open" or a "closed" group.

Elementary teacher: A teacher in grades kindergarten through six.

Secondary teacher: A teacher in grades seven through twelve.

Leadership: The behavior of the formally designated leader.

Treatment of Data

Chi square, Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W, and a probability table derived from a formula based on permutation and combination theory were used to test the hypotheses in this study. The chi square test for k independent samples discussed by Siegel[25] was used to test whether teacher groups differ in the frequency with which they chose certain organization-roles. Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W, discussed by Siegel[26] was used to determine the amount of agreement for leadership styles among the members of each group. A probability table constructed from a formula based on combination and permutation theory was used to test the amount of agreement between groups for the ideal leadership style.[27]

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[25] Sidney Siegel, Non-Parametric Statistics, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956), pp. 174-79.

[26] Ibid., pp. 229-39.

Chi square was used to test for sample representativeness. Cella[28] has stated that it is important to select an item for testing which is not a basis for the selection of the sample. The number of male teachers and female teachers in "open" and "closed" systems were found to be representative. Data on organization-role and perception of leadership styles were secured through a questionnaire given to all the teachers in the six schools.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is organized into six chapters. Chapter I is a description of the study and includes the introduction, need, statement of the problem, definition of terms, limitations, and brief treatment of the data. Chapter II contains the review of research and related literature. The design of the study is contained in Chapter III. Analysis and presentation of the data is contained in Chapter IV. Findings and interpretations are presented in Chapter V. Chapter VI contains the summary of the study, the conclusions based on the findings, and recommendations offered in view of the findings and conclusions.

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[27] Table was constructed with the assistance of Dr. James O. Danley, Chairman, Department of Mathematics, East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma.

[28] Francis R. Cella, Sampling Statistics in Business and Economics (Norman: Bureau of Business Research, University of Oklahoma, 1950), p. 224.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE

The concept of authority has been identified as having three characteristics: behavior determined by others higher in the hierarchy, a social relationship, and compliance due to the will of the subordinate.[1] Since the exercise of authority depends on the willingness of a subordinate to obey, the superior not only controls the subordinate but in turn is controlled by him. This leads to the obvious fact that authority means inequality of control.[2]

A fundamental source of conflict emerges from the system of social control used by bureaucracies and the professions. Professionals in a given field constitute a group of equals who control themselves. They have been taught to internalize a code of professional ethics which guide professional activities and this code of behavior is supported by professional colleagues; that is, professionals are basically responsible to their consciences, but at times they may be censured by their colleagues. On the other hand, control in bureaucratic organizations is not in the hands of the colleague group; on the contrary, discipline is based upon one major line of authority.

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[1] Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, (New York: MacMillian Co., 1945) p. 125-34. Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938) pp. 163-84.

[2] Blau, op. cit., p. 161.

The articulation between bureaucratic and professional authority in formal organizations is not without strain. There are different ways to resolve the strain and conflict created by the merger of these two institutional modes of control. At least two different developments have emerged to facilitate the resolution of such strain: (1) In some organizations major structural changes have occurred; and (2) Many professionals employed in organizations have developed orientations which are not incompatible with the demands of bureaucratic organization.

Within the past decade the stance of local teachers' organizations has changed significantly, and teachers are now actively agitating for a real choice in determining the future of education. According to Perry and Wildman,[3] collective activity among public school employees is increasing, and the ultimate result appears to be an attempt by teachers' organizations to achieve shared control over policy formulation and administrative decision-making. Bidwell[4] found in a study regarding the desired and actual behavior of administrators according to teachers that the same behavior on the part of the administrator resulted in both feelings of security and of tension in two groups, satisfied teachers and dissatisfied teachers. It is apparent that different groups may require different sets of actions on the part of administrators in order to fulfill their expectations.

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[3] Perry and Wildman, loc. cit.

The concepts of authority and control are directly related to the goals of teacher groups. Some groups employ more formal means, such as collective activity, in an attempt to reach their goals. It is believed that a review of the concepts of authority and control along with the activity of collective negotiations should provide a background for the problem of this study. The management of the two types of school systems is influenced by varying degrees of authority and control held by teacher groups. This degree of control in the two types of school systems is positively correlated with the amount of collective activity present. The review of literature relating to leadership is included as it is treated as a dependent variable when investigating differences in organization structure.

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[4] Charles E. Bidwell, "The Administrative Role and Satisfaction in Teaching," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (September, 1955), pp. 41-47.

Research and Literature Related to Authority

As teachers become more professional they bring into focus a basic conflict between the professional orientation and bureaucratic orientation. There are many contrasts between the principles which tend to generate conflict for professionals employed in bureaucratic organizations.[5] The ultimate basis for a professional act is the professional's knowledge while justification of a bureaucratic act is its consistency with the organizational regulations and approval by a superordinate.

In some organizations professional authority has been recognized as being legitimate and major structural changes have occurred. In others where professional authority has not been legitimated professionals have either developed orientations which are not incompatible with the demands of the bureaucratic organizations or they have increased the rate of conflict with the administrative hierarchy.

One example of an organization where structural accommodations have been made to the bureaucratic - professional authority strain is that of the hospital. Hall describes the dual authority system of the hospital as:

> . . . the emergence of two competing chains of command. One of these proceeds from the superintendent of the hospital down through supervisors of nursing . . . and provides a system of orders,

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[5] Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organization: A Comparative Approach (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962), pp. 60-63.

> and of accountability, from the top to the bottom of the organization. On the other hand, the hierarchy of the doctors stands completely outside this structure . . .[6]

Although strains still remain between the two hierarchies the dual authority structure seems to be a partial solution.

When professionals are employed in formal organizations they must resolve the strain that results from the professional-bureaucratic dilemma. Caplow and McGee[7] found that a scholar's strong orientation to his institution was apt to negatively affect his orientation to his discipline and conversely, a strong orientation to his discipline was likely to disorient him to his institution. In a study of the professional and bureaucratic orientation of teachers in Ohio and Michigan, Corwin[8] found the percentage of teachers in each of the four organization-roles to be approximately equal, from a low of 23 per cent to a high of 28 per cent. This indicates that teachers are about evenly divided in the direction of their orientation.

In a study of conflict between professional and organizational commitment in a private liberal arts college,

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[6] Oswald Hall, "Some Problems in the Provision of Medical Services," Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science XX, (1959), p. 449.

[7] Theodore Caplow and Reece J. McGee, The Academic Marketplace, (New York: Basic Books, 1958).

[8] Corwin, "Militant Professionalism," p. 323.

Gouldner[9] found that professors who were high on commitment to specialized role skills and who tended to use an outer reference group orientation were also likely to be low on organizational loyalty while those who were low on commitment to specialized skills and tended to use an inner reference group orientation were likely to be high on organizational loyalty.

In two different studies of the professional orientation of workers in bureaucratic organizations, Scott[10] and Bennis[11] had conflicting findings. Scott found an inverse relationship between the professional orientation of social workers and their organizational loyalty while Bennis in a study of the reference groups of nurses did not find professional orientation inversely related to organizational loyalty. Blau and Scott analyzed the contradictory results of the two studies and explained:

> . . . only if it is the structure of the organization rather than the structure of the profession that restricts opportunities for professional advancement do we expect professional commitment to be accompanied by a cosmopolitan orientation.[12]

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[9] Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of Latent Social Roles--I, II," Administrative Science Quarterly, II (1957-1958), pp. 281, 444-480.

[10] Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 66.

[11] Warren G. Bennis et al., "Reference Groups and Loyalties in the Out-Patient Department," Administrative Science Quarterly, III (1958), pp. 481-500.

[12] Blau and Scott, op. cit., p. 71.

Formal organizations often have many of the characteristics Weber used to describe a bureaucratic organization; in fact, all formal organizations are to a certain extent bureaucratic, even though there are wide variations among organizations. For Weber[13] some of the essential characteristics of a bureaucratic structure included: A clear-cut division of labor and specialization, an official system of rules and regulations to govern organizational decisions and actions, impersonality and rationality in decision-making, a hierarchy of authority, and career patterns based on seniority and/or achievement.

Public schools are formal organizations; furthermore, some students of organizations see the American public school as a highly bureaucratic structure. Abbott,[14] for example, using the Weberian model outlined briefly above, concluded:

> The school organization as we know it today . . . can accurately be described as a highly developed bureaucracy. As such, it exhibits many of the characteristics and employs many of the strategies of the military, industrial, and governmental agencies with which it might be compared.

The bureaucratic model seems to be the organizational model held by most school administrators and this may explain why the model may be used to adequately predict certain behavior in schools.[15] However, since there is only one bureaucratic model, there has been a tendency to underemphasize differences between organizations and the model. Etzioni[16] suggests that the Weberian model:

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[13] Ibid., pp. 32-33.

[14] Max G. Abbott, "Hierarchical Impediments to Innovation in Educational Organizations," in Max G. Abbott and John T. Lovell (eds.), Change Perspectives in Educational Administration (Auburn, Alabama: Auburn University, School of Education, 1955), pp. 40-53.

> . . . applies particularly to business and governmental bureaucracies, and in part to hierarchical churches and some military organizations as well. But when we consider prisons, universities . . . schools . . ., many propositions have to be specified considerably before they hold true.

In addition, Miles[17] has indicated that the bureaucratic model is not an effective normative guide to action, especially where school improvement is concerned.

The monocratic structure of authority in bureaucratic organizations assumes that every subordinate, by definition, has less technical expertise than his superior. This assumption certainly does not apply in public schools nor does it apply in other professional organizations. On the contrary, in professional organizations, professionals have superior competence and technical expertise even though they constitute either the middle or lower ranks of the organizations. Etzioni[18] maintains that, functionally speaking, professional organizations must be structured so that those in control of primary goal activities subordinate those in control of means activities; hence administrators in professional organizations must be subordinate to professionals. This type of structural arrangement sharply contrasts with the characteristic hierarchy of authority of bureaucratic organizations and the model of the school traditionally held.

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[15] Ibid.

[16] Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations, (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1961), pp. XII-XIII.

[17] Matthew Miles, "Education and Innovation: The Organization as Context," in Abbott and Lovell, op. cit., pp. 54-72.

[18] Amitai Etzioni, "Authority Structure and Organizational Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly, (June, 1959), pp. 46-67.

Generally speaking, authority may be viewed from the extreme dimension of control-from-the-top to the polar dimension of acceptance-by-subordinates. From these extremes have come many syntheses of authority during the past thirty years. Weber is representative of the conventional approach to authority and he distinguishes between authority based on office and authority based on personal attributes to differentiate legal-rational authority.

> In the case of legal authority, obedience is owed to the legally established impersonal order. It extends to the persons exercising the authority of office under it only by virtue of the formal legality of their commands and only within the scope of authority of the office. In the case of traditional authority, obedience is owed to the person of the chief who occupies the traditionally sanctioned position of authority and who is (within its sphere) bound by tradition. But here the obligation of obedience is not based on the impersonal order, but is a matter of personal loyalty within the area of accustomed obligations. In the case of charismatic authority, it is the charismatically qualified leader as such who is obeyed, by virtue of personal trust in him and his revelation, his heroism or his exemplary qualities so far as they fall within the scope of the individual's belief in his charisma.[19]

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[19] Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization. Ed. Talcott Parsons. (London: The Free Press of Glencoe, Collier - Macmillian Limited, 1947), p. 328.

Weber distinguishes between, but does not explain, authority inherent in office and authority based on technical knowledge and experience. Parsons[20] is of the opinion that Weber has thrown together two essentially different types in the formulation of the characteristics of bureaucratic organization. Weber's "technical competence"[21] as a basis of bureaucratic efficiency, and his statements that bureaucratic administration is essentially "control by means of knowledge"[22] leads Parsons to suggest that the terms "knowledge," and "technical competence" point toward the professional expert.

Barnard[23] in The Functions of the Executive, stresses the subjective aspect of authority - the subordinates' personal acceptance of the communication as authoritative. The acceptance of authority depends on the cooperative personal attitude of both superior and subordinates and an effective system of communication in the organization.

Simon was the first to develop an operational definition of authority.

> A subordinate is said to accept authority whenever he permits his behavior to be guided by the decision of a superior without independently examining the merits of that decision.[24]

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[20] Parsons, loc. cit.

[21] Ibid., p. 335.

[22] Ibid., p. 337.

[23] Barnard, op. cit., pp. 173-175.

[24] Simon, op. cit., p. 11.

This operational definition of authority seems to relate to bureaucratic or professional authority equally. The key word is "superior." In the bureaucratic sense it would denote a superordinate in the power hierarchy while the professional import implies that knowledge is the criterion.

Many social scientists make a clear distinction between authority, control, power, influence, and leadership while others prefer to broaden their meanings until they almost become synonyms. Peabody[25] believes that the important thing concerning formal authority and functional authority is the making clear the implications of each. He further notes:

> The basis of formal authority - legitimacy, position, and the sanctions inherent in office - need to be distinguished from the sources of functional authority, most notably, professional competence, experience, and human-relations skills, which support or compete with formal authority.[26]

Peabody succiently points out the competition between these two dimensions of authority.

> In a given superior-subordinated relationship, it is the superior's lack of functional authority or the subordinate's possession of greater competence, experience, or personality which tends to undermine formal authority.[27]

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[25] Robert L. Peabody, Organizational Authority, (New York, Atherton Press, 1964) p. 118.

[26] *Loc. cit.*

[27] *Loc. cit.*

Research and Literature Related to Control

Some control devices even in a hierarchical system are impersonal. Blau[28] describes the assembly line in a factory which makes the foreman a "helper" to the worker. The line makes the demands upon the workers by requiring a certain level of performance. The foreman is cast in the role of assisting the worker in meeting a quota. This is a variant of hierarchical control designed by management.

In the mid 1950's, one of the earliest studies was done by Tannenbaum[29] to analyze the differences in control between four unions. The findings indicated that the most powerful of the four unions had a relatively influential membership as well as leaders. The least effective union was composed of relatively uninfluential members and leaders.

In a study of thirty-one separate departments of a large industrial organization, Likert[30] found that not only did the employees have more influence as a group, but so did the supervisors and managers. The higher producing group was characterized by a higher total amount of control.

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[28] Blau and Scott, *op. cit.*, p. 248.

[29] Arnold S. Tannenbaum, "Control Structure and Union Functions," *The American Journal of Sociology*, LXI (May, 1956), No. 6, p. 536-545.

[30] Robert Likert, "Influence and National Sovereignity," J. G. Peatman and E. L. Hartley, eds., *Festschrift for Gardner Murphy*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960), pp. 214-227.

The amount of total control and distribution of control were found to be more important in organizational structure which emphasized cooperation and coordination of its parts than in one which stresses competition and individual initiative in a nationwide study[31] of thirty-one automobile dealerships.

Smith and Air[32] found in a study of thirty-two units of a nationally organized delivery company that the significant exercise of control by both members and leaders led to a high degree of identification and involvement in the organization. This study also revealed that there was a high and significant correlation between total amount and distribution of control.

Tannenbaum's hypothesis that total control was related positively to overall organizational effectiveness was substantiated by Bowers[33] in a study of forty agencies of a life insurance company.

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[31] Martin Patcher, Stanley E. Seashore, and William Eckerman, "Some Dealership Characteristics Related to Change in New Car Sales Volume," (Unpublished report, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1961).

[32] Clagett G. Smith and Ogus N. Air, "Organizational Control Structure and Member Consensus," American Journal of Sociology, LXIX (May, 1964), pp. 623-638.

[33] David G. Bowers, "Organizational Control in an Insurance Company," Sociometry, XXVI (June, 1964), No. 2, pp. 230-244.

Meier[34] concluded from a study that investigated control structure difference between two public school systems that the total amount of perceived control was not influenced by the differences in the way the teacher groups in the two school systems were organized. He further concluded that differences did exist in the way the intervening variables of sex, grade level taught, age, and teaching experience influenced perception of control.

Research and Literature Related to Collective Negotiations

Lieberman[35] urged the National Education Association as early as 1956 to prepare for some type of collective negotiations. However, it was not until the success of the United Federation of Teachers in 1961 in New York City, that National Education Association leaders were convinced that new policies were needed.

The National Education Association underwent major changes as a result of the collective negotiations movement. The following selected policies and resolutions illustrate the changes that evolved from 1961 to 1965. The National Education Association adopted the following policy on collective negotiations at its 1961 convention:

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[34] John T. Meier, "Control Structure Differences between Two Selected Public School Systems," (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, 1966).

[35] Myron Lieberman, Education as a Profession, (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1956), p. 371.

> Since boards of education and the teaching profession have the same ultimate aim of providing the best possible educational opportunity for children and youth, relationships must be established which are based upon this community of interest and the concept of education as both a public trust and a professional calling.
>
> Recognizing both the legal authority of boards of education and the educational competencies of the teaching profession the two groups should view the consideration of matters of mutual concern as a joint responsibility.
>
> The National Education Association believes, therefore, that professional education associations should be accorded the right, through democratically selected representatives using appropriate professional channels, to participate in the determination of policies of common concern including salary and other conditions for professional service.
>
> The seeking of consensus and mutual agreement on a professional basis should preclude the arbitrary exercise of unilateral authority by boards of education and the use of the strike by teachers as a means for enforcing economic demands.
>
> When common consent cannot be reached, the Association recommends that a board of review consisting of members of professional and lay groups affiliated with education should be used as the means of resolving extreme differences.[36]

The term "professional negotiation" was first officially used by the National Educational Association at the 1962 convention when it adopted the following resolution:

> . . . . The seeking of consensus and mutual agreement on a professional basis should preclude the arbitrary exercise of unilateral authority by boards of education and the use of strikes by teachers.
>
> . . . . The Association believes that procedures should be established which provide an orderly method of professional education associations and boards of education to reach mutually satisfactory agreements. These procedures should include provisions for appeal

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[36] National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, 1961 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1961), pp. 216-217.

> through designated channels when agreement cannot be reached.
>
> . . . . Industrial-disputes conciliation machinery, which assumes a conflict of interest and a diversity of purposes between persons and groups, is not appropriate to professional negotiation in public education.[37]

Another resolution which reflected the changing position of the National Education Association which was adopted by the 1962 convention pertained to "Professional Sanctions."

> The National Education Association believes that, as a means of preventing unethical or arbitrary policies or practices that have a deleterious effect on the welfare of the schools, professional sanctions should be invoked. These sanctions would provide for appropriate disciplinary action by the organized profession.
>
> The National Education Association calls upon its affiliated state associations to cooperate in developing guidelines which would define, organize, and definitely specify procedural steps for invoking sanctions by the teaching profession.[38]

The 1963 National Education Association convention changed the 1962 resolution on professional negotiations from ". . . the Association believes that procedures should be established . . ." to ". . . the Association believes that procedures must be established . . ." The 1965 convention further strengthened the resolution on sanctions as follows:

> . . . . a violation of sanctions by a member of the profession is a violation of the code of

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[37] National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings, 1962 (Washington, C.C.: National Education Association, 1962), pp. 397-398.

[38] Ibid., p. 181.

> ethics of the education profession. Therefore, the offering or accepting of employment in areas where sanctions are in effect should be evaluated in terms of the code and local, state, and national associations should begin developing procedures for disciplining members who violate sanctions.[39]

Wisconsin was the only state with a comprehensive law regulating collective negotiations in public education prior to 1965. In 1965, negotation laws were enacted in six states: California, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, Oregon and Washington. In three other states bills were vetoed by the governors.

A California statute,[40] requires school boards to adopt reasonable rules and regulations for the administration of employer-employee relations. The statute further states that:

> A public school employer or the government board thereof, or such administrative officer as it may designate, shall meet and confer with representatives of employee organizations upon request with regard to all matters relating to the definition of educational objectives, the determination of the content of courses, and curricula, the selection of textbooks, and other aspects of the instructional program to the extent such matters are within the discretion of the public school employer or governing board under the law. . .[41]

This statute also includes all matters relating to employment conditions and employer-employee relations, including, but not limited to wages, hours, and conditions of employment.[42]

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[39] National Education Association, NEA Handbook (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1965), p. 63.

[40] Education Code, State of California, Section 13086.

[41] Ibid., Section 13085.

Teachers today are interested and active in many areas where there was little concern five years ago. The growing importance of the teacher organization as a vehicle for improving the working conditions for the teachers is well recognized. Steffensen[43] believes that teachers are proposing, through their various organizations, a more highly formalized system of communication than has existed in the past.

In 1963 Wildman[44] stated that collective action by teachers to establish rules and policies which affect teachers will become more attractive in the future.

> The incidence of collective activity among public school teachers on the local level is clearly increasing, and it seems evident that the essential trust and desired effects of attempts by teacher organizations to assume greater power in the local system is shared control over policy formulation and administrative decision-making in areas traditionally considered the unilateral responsibility of boards and administrators.[45]

The increased collective activity today has corroborated Wildman's observation while the validity of

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[42] *Ibid.*, Section 13084.

[43] James P. Steffensen, *Teachers Negotiate with Their School Boards* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964).

[44] Wesley A. Wildman, "Collective Action by Public School Teachers," *Administrator's Notebook*, XI (February, 1963), No. 6.,pp. 28-36.

[45] *Ibid.*, p. 22.

Lieberman's[46] statement, made in 1965, that in the near future all conditions of employment will be governed by collective agreements reached between school boards and representatives of teachers, must await the passage of time.

Ohm and Monahan[47] support the concept of the school as an open system in significant interchange with the larger communities and institutions it serves. They further believe that organized teacher groups have influence on the larger social system and this influence can be mobilized and used for the benefit of the school.

> The addition to and formal board recognition of an organized system may increase the total power of the larger community and enable it to achieve its purpose more effectively.[48]

In the schools where organized teacher groups have influenced the larger social system for the benefit of the school, such as more adequate financial support, it appears reasonable to assume that if a different relationship exists with the larger social system a different relationship may also exist with the administrative hierarchy. This difference could be expressed as a difference in the perception of leadership styles and/or organization-roles.

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[46] Myron Lieberman, "Who Speaks for the Teachers," Saturday Review, June 19, 1965), pp. 64-65.

[47] Robert E. Ohm and William G. Monahan, "Power and Stress in Organizational Response to Collective Action," The Superintendent Confronts Collective Action, eds. Robert E. Ohm and Oliver D. Johns (Norman: College of Education, 1965), pp. 71-76.

[48] Ibid., p. 75.

Research and Literature Related to Leadership

Leadership is a word that is easy to use but difficult to define in a manner that is universally acceptable. Many leadership studies have concerned themselves with specific traits or characteristics of those who occupy positions of leadership while other studies have concentrated on the behavior of such individuals in an attempt to discover the variable that differentiates a leader from a non-leader.

Pigors defines leadership as:

> A process of mutual stimulation which by the successful interplay of relevant individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause.[49]

While Hollander's definition of a leader is as follows:

> In general, leader denotes an individual with a status that permits him to exercise influence over certain individuals. Specifically (the definition is) directed toward leaders deriving status from followers who may accord or withdraw it . . . . Group content is therefore a central feature in the leader-follower relationship. . .[50]

Stogdill[51] says that the true leadership role is determined by the expectations of the leader and of the other group members, while role behavior is the resultant between what he and others think he ought to do and what he can do.

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[49] Paul Pigors, Leadership or Domination, (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1935), p. 16.

[50] E.P. Hollander, "Emmergent Leadership and Social Influence," in Luigi Petrullo, ed., Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1961), p. 30.

[51] Ralph M. Stogdill, et. al., Leadership and Role Expectations, Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 1956, p. 168.

Sanford found that most psychological research on leadership has been concerned with the traits of leaders. He contends:

> The leadership literature leads us to think either (a) that there are no general "leadership traits" or (b) that if there are, they do not come in such a form as to be properly described in terms of those personality variables which we now can most easily measure.[52]

As stated earlier, research emphasis has been concerned with generalized traits rather than specific behavior patterns. A few of the many studies are cited here as examples of the focus of inquiry. Remmlein[53] in his study among high-school seniors found that the leaders were younger, superior in scholarship, intelligence, and dominance. Middleton[54] found that college-student leaders were superior in character, intelligence, persistence, accuracy, sociability, and judgment. Parten[55] found that among nursery-school children the leaders were more intelligent and more socially developed than their non-leader companions. Cartwright and Zander's[56] findings reveal that in comparison with group norms, leaders are bigger and brighter, but in each area the difference is only very slight.

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[52] Filmore H. Sanford, "The Follower's Role in Leadership Phenomena," in Guy E. Swanson, Ed., Readings in Social Psychology, New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952), pp. 328-341.

[53] Madaline K. Remmlein, "Analysis of Leaders among High-School Seniors," Journal of Experimental Education VI 413-22; 1938.

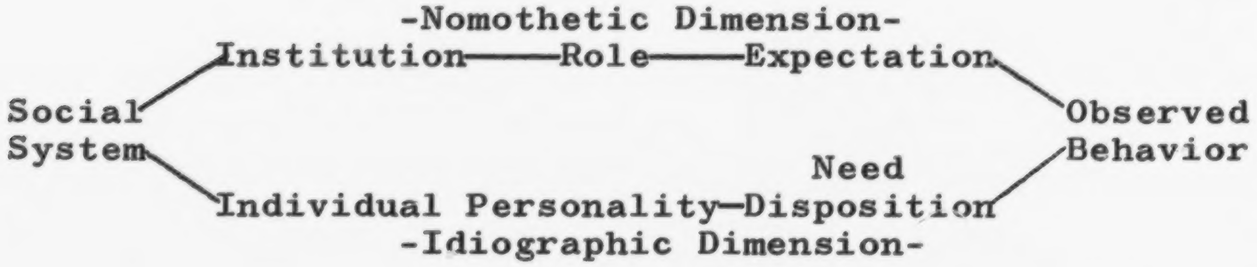
[54] W. C. Middleton, "Personality Qualities Predominant in Campus Leaders," Journal of Social Psychology XIII (1941), pp. 199-201.

[55] Mildred B. Parten, "Leadership Among Pre-school Children," Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology XXVII (1933), pp. 430-40.

In general, the trait approach to leadership, as it has been used in most studies reported in the literature, has yielded minimal and often contradictory results according to Stogdill.[57]

Guba and Bidwell[58] believe that the Getzels-Guba model[59] describing the role structure of an organization can be applied to a school to enable one to explain and predict the behavior of teachers and administrators.

The Getzels-Guba model is presented below:



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[56] Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, (Eds.) *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*. (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1953.

[57] Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," *Journal of Psychology* XXV (No. 25, 1948), pp. 35-71.

[58] Egon G. Guba and Charles E. Bidwell, *Administrative Relationships*, (University of Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, 1957),p. 5.

[59] Andrew Halpin, *Administrative Theory in Education*, (University of Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, 1958), p. 156.

The model depicts two levels of interaction, the institutional level and the individual or personal level. Getzels[60] hypothesized the administrative process to be dependent upon the nature of the overlap of the perception of the expectations of the subordinate and the superordinate in relation to their respective positions.

Moser has identified three leadership styles for school administrators from the Getzels-Guba model:

> The nomothetic style is characterized by behavior which stresses goal accomplishment, rules and regulations, and centralized authority at the expense of the individual. Effectiveness is rated in terms of behavior toward accomplishing the school's objectives.
>
> The idiographic style is characterized by behavior which stresses the individuality of people, minimum rules and regulations, decentralized authority, and highly individualistic relationships with subordinates. The primary objective is to keep subordinates happy and contented.
>
> The transactional style is characterized by behavior which stresses goal accomplishment, but which also makes provision for individual need fulfillment. The transactional leader balances nomothetic and idiographic behavior and he judiciously utilizes each style as the occasion demands.[61]

In the investigation of The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents, Halpin[62] chose to measure only two dimensions of leader behavior, "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration." These two dimensions compare closely with the Nomothetic and Idiographic dimensions of the Getzels-Guba model.

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[60] Jacob W. Getzels in Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 55.

[61] Robert P. Moser,"The Leadership Patterns of School Superintendents and School Principals," Administrator's Notebook, Vol. VI, September 1957, No. 1.

[62] Halpin, loc. cit.

Halpin's two terms appear to be different labels for older concepts that have been used many times in efforts to explain the leadership phenomena. He gives the meanings of the terms as:

> . . . . Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.[63]

Other writers have identified these concepts of leader behavior in a manner that closely parallels those of Getzels, Guba, and Halpin. In describing the objectives of groups, Cartwright and Zander concluded:

> It appears that most, or perhaps all, group objectives can be subsumed under one of two headings: (a) the achievement of some specific group goal, or (b) the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself. . . .[64]

While Barnard in his analysis of the functions of the executive identified and explained the elements of cooperative actions as follows:

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[63] Halpin, _op. cit_., p. 4.

[64] Cartwright and Zander, _op. cit_., p. 541.

> The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions: (a) its effectiveness; and (b) its efficiency. Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in character. . . .[65]

Estephan[66] and Mcallister[67] used a modification of the Leadership Style Typology in investigating leadership style perceptions of teachers and administrators. Estephan[68] found in a study of twenty-eight faculty members of a small midwestern university that there was a significant preference for the nomothetic or rule oriented leadership style while the charismatic leadership style was the least preferred. Mcallister's[69] findings from a study of thirty teachers and thirty administrators in the public schools indicated that there was agreement between teachers and administrators for the type of leadership style they preferred for their school.

Though research related to leadership has been confined mostly to small informal groups, there are now a few studies that have investigated the behavior of leaders in formal organizations. Most of the literature and research pertaining to leadership is relevant to the analysis of the organizational influence on leader behavior but is not sufficient to assist adequately a fuller understanding of the complications of bureaucratic hierarchy. For this reason, additional research seeking more information about perception of leadership styles in school systems is needed.

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[65] Barnard, op. cit., p. 60.

[66] Joseph I. Estephan, "The Influence of Interpersonal Needs of Teacher Preference for Leadership," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, 1966.

[67] Vernon Mcallister, "A Study of Leadership Role Percepts as Viewed by Teachers, School Administrators, and School Board Members," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman, 1966.

[67] Estephan, op. cit.

[68] Mcallister, op. cit.

Summary

In recent years the policies and resolutions of the National Education Association reflect the increased emphasis teachers are placing on gaining at least a share of the control in public schools. The endeavor for increased control by teachers has focused on the concept of authority. The traditional concept of authority has been control from the top in the strict bureaucratic sense. With the increased professionalization of teachers has come increased conflict and strain between different parts of the organization - the bureaucratic and the professional.

Teachers in California now have partial control over aspects of the instructional program as well as matters relating to employment conditions and employer-employee relations. This represents a major organization structural change in that the professional authority of the teacher has been legitimated and accompanied by an increase in control. This has not occurred in Oklahoma. The underlying purpose of this study is to determine if the increased control engendered by this structural change influences teachers' perception of leadership styles and organization-roles.

In general, the trait approach to leadership has yielded contradictory results. The Getzels-Guba model identified three of the leadership styles utilized by Ohm in the Leadership Typology used in this study. The Getzels-Guba model attempts to predict behavior from a role structure basis rather than a trait approach to leadership study.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Methodology

The population includes all teachers of six selected school systems of comparable size. They were selected because of the differences in the teacher organization relationships with the school administration and the local board of education. Three schools are located in California and three in Oklahoma. Schools A, B and C are located in Oklahoma and are classified as "closed" schools. Schools D, E, and F are located in California and are classified as "open" schools.

All school systems have formally organized teacher groups in operation. The administrative hierarchies of schools D, E, and F are required by statute to meet and confer with representatives of certificated employees upon request with regard to all matters relating to employment conditions, employer-employee relations, the definition of educational objectives, the determination of the content of courses and curricula, the selection of textbooks, and other aspects of the instructional program to the extent that such matters are within the discretion of the public school employer or governing board under the law. Although schools D, E, and F are now guaranteed this right by statute, they had been engaged in this type of negotiation for several years prior to its becoming law.

The characteristics of the teacher groups in schools A, B, and C are similar to those of teacher groups in schools D, E, and F in that they are affiliates of national organizations, and they do present matters of concern to the superintendent. Here the similarity ends. Teacher groups in schools A, B, and C are not guaranteed the right to negotiate by statute nor are they granted this right by board policy. The superintendent or the board of education at their discretion may accept or reject any proposal made by the teacher group.

A conference was held with the administrators in each school system to explain the study and to secure their cooperation. The questionnaire was distributed to teachers during a faculty meeting with instructions to complete it at a later time and return it without any identifying symbols. Collection of data was accomplished by each school system. A letter was sent to Dr. Ronald G. Corwin asking his permission to use the instruments for examining staff conflicts in the public schools. He replied in the affirmative. (See Appendix A).

According to Selltiz:

> There are many factors that influence the percentage of returns to a questionnaire. Among the most important are: (1) the sponsorship of the questionnaire; (2) the attractiveness of the questionnaire format; (3) the length of the qeustionnaire; (4) the nature of the accompanying letter requesting cooperation; (5) the ease of filling out the questionnaire and mailing it back; (6) the nature of the people to whom the questionnaire is sent.[1]

In order to secure the highest possible return, the questionnaire was constructed with special consideration being given to the above points, with a final decision not to send an accompanying letter. Instead the questionnaire was distributed and explained to teacher groups by a local administrator. From the closed systems, there was an 84.8 per cent return from school A, and 100 per cent return from school B, while school C had a 91.9 per cent return. From the open systems D had a 73 per cent return, school E had a 61.5 per cent return, and school F had a 64.8 per cent return. (See Appendix C).

Instrumentation

The study of leadership originally was concerned with the identification of traits and characteristics of leaders. In the past few years leader behavior has received increased attention as investigators have continued their search in an effort to understand this phenomenon. In an effort to further research on leadership, Robert E. Ohm developed a leadership typology representing five leadership styles. The styles were developed from a synthesis of leader behavior research and empirical or conventional views of leadership. Each style is composed of a set of statements selected both for their representation of research based dimensions and consistency in building a generalized style. The five styles are pragmatic in that they represent both theoretical and culturally derived views. The sub-structure of statements, however, does represent research derived dimensions.

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[1] Claire Selltiz et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1961), p. 241-42.

The styles are deliberately positive in character, since negative statements tend to become obvious for decisions when information and thought are limited. The obvious dimensions of the authoritarian, laisses-faire, democratic triangle and loaded words such as autocratic, unfriendly, cold indecisive, have been avoided. The forced choice among positive elements taps ethical dilemmas in leadership which produces a good distribution across styles.

Each style is representative of a particular leadership dimension. In each style, six of the statements are characteristic of a particular leadership dimension while a statement from each of the other four dimensions is included to prevent each style from being an obvious choice. A Leader Behavior Dimension Matrix identifies each statement in the Leadership Typology as representative of a particular dimension. (See Appendix D).

A questionnaire developed by this writer required respondents to make a choice from the Leadership Style Typology, for a principal and a superintendent in a situational context. Also a style was selected as the ideal leadership style by having each teacher choose ten statements from any of the five styles listed in the typology. Information on age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level were also obtained on this instrument.

In reviewing the literature about control it was found that Ronald G. Corwin[2] had identified a consistent pattern of conflict between teachers and school administrators over control of work. However, Corwin does not view this issue in the traditional form - the individual versus the organization. He describes an alternate form of organization, the professional-employee society, in which the tension is between parts of the system - between the professional and bureaucratic principles of organization.

Corwin developed the Professional and Bureaucratic-Employee Conception Scale to measure the extent to which teachers subscribe to professional and bureaucratic principles. All teachers are determined as either being high or low on a professional scale and on a bureaucratic-employee scale. With this procedure, all teachers are categorized into one of four organization-roles. This instrument was used in the study to identify each teacher's organization-role, which was one of the intervening variables considered in the study.

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[2] Corwin, op. cit., pp. 405-615.

The Professional and Bureaucratic-Employee Role Conception Scale was developed through the Cooperative Research Program of the Office of Education, United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Contract No. 1934, "The Development of an Instrument for Examining Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools." The split-half reliability of the employee scale is $r=.74$, or $r_n=.84$ when the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula is applied; the internal reliability of the shorter professional scale is $r=.48$ or $r_n=.65$ when corrected.

Treatment of the Data

The χ^2 test for k independent samples discussed by Siegel[3] was used to determine whether different samples of teacher groups based on school membership, sex, age, teaching experience, and teaching level differ in the frequency with which they choose certain organization-roles and therefore come from different populations. The following formula was used:

$${}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

where O_{ij} = observed number of cases categorized in ith row of jth column.

E_{ij} = number of cases expected under H_o to be categorized in ith row of jth column.

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[3] Siegel, pp. 174-179.

The level of significance was selected as $\alpha = 0.05$. To determine the significance of the observed value of χ^2 refer to Table C in Siegel.[4] If the probability given for the observed value of χ^2 for the observed degrees of freedom was equal to or greater than χ, the H_o was rejected.

The Kendall coefficient of concordance, W, discussed by Siegel[5] was used to determine if any significant statistical agreement existed among the rankings of leadership styles for the principal and the superintendent by different teacher groups based on school membership, organization role, age, sex, teaching level, and teaching experience. The following formula was used:

$$W=\frac{s}{\frac{1}{12}k^{2}\quad (N^{3}-N)\ --\ k\sum_{T} T}$$

where s = sum of squares of the observed deviations from the mean of Rj.

k = number of sets of rankings

N - number of entities ranked

$\frac{1}{12}k^{2}(N^{3}-N)$ = maximum possible sum of the squared deviations

t = number of observations in a group tied for a given rank

$$T = \frac{\sum (t^{3}-t)}{12}$$

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[4] Ibid., p. 249.

[5] Ibid., pp. 229-239.

The level of significance was selected as 0.05. To determine the significance of the observed value of χ^2, use the following formula and refer to Table C in Siegel.[6] If the probability for the observed value of χ^2 for the observed degrees of freedom was equal to or greater than α, the H_o was rejected.

$$\chi^2 = k(N - 1)W$$

A high or significant value of W may be interpreted as meaning the observers applied essentially the same standard in ranking the N objects. A high or significant value of W does not mean that the orderings were correct.

The procedure used to test the agreement between groups in constructing the ideal leadership style is as follows. The following formula based on combination and permutation theory was used to test the amount of agreement between ten things taken ten at a time from a group of fifty with another ten things taken ten at a time from a similar group of fifty:

$$f(x) = \frac{\binom{10}{x}\binom{40}{10-x}}{\binom{50}{10}}$$

where f(x) probability of x occurrences in 10 trials.[7]

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[6] Ibid., p. 249.

[7] William L. Hart, Algebra, Elementary Functions, and Probability (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1965), pp. 283-303.

The following table was constructed from the above formula:[8]

x	f(x)
0	0
1	0.0266
2	0.3369
3	0.2178
4	0.0785
5	0.0161
6	0.0019
7	0.0001
8	0
9	0
10	0

The level of significance was selected as $\alpha = 0.05$. As indicated by the above table, when x equals or exceeds 5 the probability, f(x), is less than alpha, 0.05, and therefore significant.

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[8] Table was constructed with the assistance of Dr. James O. Danley, Chairman, Department of Mathematics, East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The data of this study were collected from classroom teachers of six selected schools. The three "open" system schools with a teacher population of 390 returned 254 questionnaires. The 380 "closed" system teachers returned 342 questionnaires. This was a 65.1 per cent return from the "open" system and a 90 per cent return from the "closed" system. The elementary teachers had an 83.4 per cent return while the secondary teachers had a return of 71.1 per cent. The male teachers returned 79.2 per cent of the questionnaires and the female teachers returned 76.4 per cent. (See Appendix C).

The data were arranged so that the statistical treatment could be performed as stated in the section on the treatment of the data in Chapter I, all hypotheses were tested by chi square, Kendall's coefficient of concordance, or a probability table. Chi square was used to test H_{o1}, the coefficient of concordance was used to test H_{o2} through H_{o5}, and a probability table constructed from a formula based on combination and permutation theory was used to test H_{o6}. A two-tailed test of significance of difference was used throughout with the 0.05 level of confidence. However, when there was a higher level of significance it was stated.

Hypothesis 1 was: There is no statistically significant difference in the organization-role distribution of teachers according to school membership, age, sex, teaching experience and teaching level. The sub-hypothesis for each group were tested. Chi square was used to test the frequency distribution. There was a significant difference in the organization-role distribution by school membership as shown in Table I.

TABLE I

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR ORGANIZATION ROLE BY SCHOOL MEMBERSHIP

SYSTEM	ORGANIZATION ROLE*			
	HH	HL	LH	LL
Open	175 (69%)	8 (3%)	62 (24%)	9 (4%)
Closed	305 (89%)	7 (2%)	27 (8%)	3 (1%)

$\chi^2=15.75$; Sig at $P \geq .01$, 3 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

In order to present a clearer picture of age differences in the preference for organization-role the teachers were divided into five different age-groups. This division of age-groups made one-half of the cells in the contingency table have an expected frequency of less than five. As a chi square value obtained from a contingency table where twenty per cent of the cells contain an expected frequency of less than five is meaningless, a value was not calculated for this distribution. It is merely presented to show the distribution. (See Table II).

TABLE II

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR ORGANIZATION ROLE BY AGE

AGE-GROUP	ORGANIZATION ROLE*			
	HH	HL	LH	LL
1. 20 - 29	73	1	24	3
2. 30 - 39	95	2	36	3
3. 40 - 49	156	6	16	2
4. 50 - 59	116	3	9	3
5. 60 - 70	40	3	4	1

1 and 2 vs 3, 4, and
χ^2=33.50; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 3 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

As the Service Bureaucrat category represented 80.2 per cent of the sample, the three other categories were combined in order to meet the chi square cell frequency restrictions. When the category of Service Bureaucrat was compared with the other categories as a group, the sub-hypothesis was rejected as indicated in Table III.

TABLE III

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR COMBINED ORGANIZATION ROLE BY AGE

AGE-GROUPS	ORGANIZATION ROLE*	
	HH	HL/LH/LL
1. 20 - 29	73 (72%)	28 (28%)
2. 30 - 39	95 (70%)	41 (30%)
3. 40 - 49	156 (87%)	24 (13%)
4. 50 - 59	116 (89%)	15 (11%)
5. 60 - 70	40 (83%)	8 (17%)

1 vs 2 vs 3 vs 4 vs 5:
$\chi^2=25.43$; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 4 d.f.
1 vs 2: $\chi^2=0.15$; NS
1 vs 3: $\chi^2=8.85$; Sig at $P \geq .01$, 1 d.f.
1 vs 4: $\chi^2=6.30$; Sig at $P \geq .02$, 1 d.f.
1 vs 5: $\chi^2=2.15$; NS
2 vs 3: $\chi^2=13.20$; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 1 d.f.
2 vs 4: $\chi^2=16.60$; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 1 d.f.
2 vs 5: $\chi^2=6.53$; Sig at $P \geq .02$, 1 d.f.
3 vs 4: $\chi^2=0.24$; NS
3 vs 5: $\chi^2=0.30$; NS
4 vs 5: $\chi^2=0.72$; NS
1+2 vs 3+4+5: $\chi^2=23.62$; Sig at $P \geq .001$ 1 d.f.
1+2+3 vs 4+5: $\chi^2=6.53$; Sig at $P \geq .02$, 1 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

All of the age-groups had a strong preference for the Service Bureaucrat category, however, the three oldest age-groups had a higher percentage of Service Bureaucrats than the two youngest age-groups.

There was no significant difference in the combined organization-role distribution between the 20 to 29 age-group and the 30 to 39 age-group. Neither was there any significant difference in the combined organization-role distribution among the three oldest age-groups. (See Table III).

The testing of the grouped organization-role categories indicated that a significant difference in the organization-role distribution existed between the younger and older age-groups. With the dichotomized age-groups, it was possible to test the distribution among all four categories of organization-role. A significant difference in the organization-role distribution of teachers according to age is indicated in Table II when the two youngest groups are compared with the three oldest groups.

Hypothesis 1 pertaining to sex was significant at 0.01 as shown by Table IV. Although the males comprise 36.6 per cent of the sample, they represent 46 per cent of a combined group composed of Functional Bureaucrats, Job Bureaucrats, and Alienated.

TABLE IV

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR ORGANIZATION ROLE BY SEX

SEX	ORGANIZATION ROLE*			
	HH	HL	LH	LL
Male	165	7	41	5
Female	315	8	48	7

χ^2=16.05; Sig at $P \geq .01$, 3 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

Teaching experience was divided into four categories in order to get a clearer picture of differences in the preference for organization-role. Forty-four per cent of the cells in Table V have an expected frequency of less than five, which makes the chi square value meaningless. As the category of Service Bureaucrat represents 80.2 per cent of the sample, the three remaining categories were combined to examine the distribution as shown in Table VI.

TABLE V

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR ORGANIZATION ROLE BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

TEACHING EXPERIENCE		ORGANIZATION ROLE*			
		HH	HL	LH	LL
1.	0 - 6	132	3	39	7
2.	7 - 13	116	4	28	1
3.	14 - 20	102	4	12	3
4.	20+	130	4	10	1

1+2 vs 3+4: χ^2=17.61;
Sig at $P \geq .001$, 3 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

There was no significant difference between any two experience groups that were adjacent. However, all experience groups were significantly different from experience groups that were more than one group removed. There was a positive correlation between group distance and the level of significance.

TABLE VI

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR COMBINED ORGANIZATION ROLE BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	ORGANIZATION ROLE*	
	HH	HL/LH/LL
1. 0 - 6	132	49
2. 7 - 13	116	33
3. 14 - 20	102	19
4. 20+	130	15

1 vs 2 vs 3 vs 4:
χ^2=17.76; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 3 d.f.
1 vs 2: χ^2= .81; NS
1 vs 3: χ^2= 4.74; Sig at $P \geq .05$, 1 d.f.
1 vs 4: χ^2=13.24; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 1 d.f.
2 vs 3: χ^2= 1.39; NS
2 vs 4: χ^2= 6.65; Sig at $P \geq .01$, 1 d.f.
3 vs 4: χ^2= 1.25; NS
1 vs 2+3+4: χ^2= 8.92; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 1 d.f.
2 vs 3+4: χ^2= 6.28; Sig at $P \geq .02$, 1 d.f.
1+2 vs 3+4: χ^2=34.74; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 1 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

As Table VI indicated a significant difference between the two youngest and the two oldest experience-groups, these were grouped and tested. Hypothesis 1 pertaining to teaching experience was rejected at the 0.001 level of confidence as shown by Table V.

Hypothesis 1 pertaining to teaching level was rejected at the 0.001 level of confidence as indicated in Table VII. The secondary group comprised 45.1 per cent of the sample but it made up 55.1 per cent of a composite group of Functional Bureaucrat, Job Bureaucrat, and Alienated categories. (See Table VII).

TABLE VII

TEACHER PREFERENCE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL-ROLE BY TEACHING LEVEL

TEACHING LEVEL	ORGANIZATION ROLE*			
	HH	HL	LH	LL
Elementary	275	11	35	6
Secondary	205	4	54	6

$\chi^2=17.04$; Sig at $P \geq .001$, 3 d.f.

*HH: Service Bureaucrat
HL: Functional Bureaucrat
LH: Job Bureaucrat
LL: Alienated

Hypothesis 2 was: The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in an "open" system is a matter of chance. Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W, was used to determine the amount of agreement within a group. The sub-hypothesis for each independent variable was tested. The required chi square value for significance at $P \geq 0.05$ was 9.49.

The sub-hypothesis concerning organization-role was tested in four categories for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. The Service Bureaucrat category for the roles of the principal and the superintendent was significant at the 0.01 level as indicated in Table VIII.

The summated rankings in Table IX show Mr. Green to be preferred by all organization-role categories for the role of the principal while Mr. Gray was ranked in a tie

TABLE VIII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN AN OPEN GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Service Bureaucrat	0.01996[1]	0.02409[2]
Functional Bureaucrat	0.02187	0.05312
Job Bureaucrat	0.01647	0.03080
Alienated	0.06172	0.01234

[1] Significant at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.

[2] Significant at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.

TABLE IX

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN AN OPEN GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	3	4.5	1	2	4.5	5	3.5	2	3.5	1
Functional Bureaucrat	5	2	1	3.5	3.5	5	4	1.5	1.5	3
Job Bureaucrat	2	3	1	4	5	4	3	2	5	1
Alienated	2	5	1	3	4	3	1	5	2	4

with Mr. Brown for last place. However, Mr. Gray was ranked first for the role of the superintendent. Mr. Green also received the most first place votes for principal and Mr. Gray received the most first place votes for superintendent as indicated in Table X. Mr. Gray received the most last place votes for the role of the principal while Mr. Black and Mr. Gray tied for the most last place votes for the role of the superintendent as shown in Table XI.

TABLE X

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN AN OPEN GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	30	26	52	27	29	21	25	28	20	70
Functional Bureaucrat	0	0	3	1	2	0	0	2	2	2
Job Bureaucrat	12	11	18	9	13	8	13	14	4	24
Alienated	3	2	2	0	1	1	4	1	0	2

When the age-group categories were tested for agreement on the role of the principal in an "open" group, only the 60 to 70 age-group sub-hypothesis was significant while the 20 to 29 and the 60 to 70 age-groups sub-hypotheses were significant for the role of the superintendent as indicated

TABLE XI

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN AN OPEN GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	31	35	21	22	46	38	32	24	25	38
Functional Bureaucrat	1	1	2	0	2	3	1	1	0	1
Job Bureaucrat	9	11	12	11	19	12	10	11	16	14
Alienated	1	2	1	1	3	1	2	2	1	2

by Table XII. In the 60 to 70 age-group for the role of the principal, Mr. Green received the top ranking for both roles, principal and superintendent. The 20 to 29 age-group ranked Mr. Gray first for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XIII). Mr. Green was second to Mr. White for first place for the role of the principal in the 60 to 70 age group while the same group gave the most first place votes to Mr. Gray for the role of the superintendent. Mr. Green received the fewest first place votes for superintendent. In the 20 to 29 age-group, Mr. Green received the fewest first place votes with the other four virtually in a tie. (See Table XIV). Mr. Gray received the most last place votes from the 60 to 70 age-group for both the role of the principal and the superintendent. He also received the most last place votes for the role of the latter from the 20 to 29 age-group. (See Table XV).

TABLE XII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN AN OPEN GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
20 - 29	0.00667	0.05682[2]
30 - 39	0.00630	0.01919
40 - 49	0.02830	0.01532
50 - 59	0.04470	0.01204
60 - 70	0.25121[1]	0.14809[3]

[1] χ^2=17.08; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.

[2] χ^2=12.73; Sig at $P \geq 0.02$, 4 d.f.

[3] χ^2=10.07; Sig at $P \geq 0.02$, 4 d.f.

TABLE XIII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN AN OPEN GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	3.5	1.5	1.5	3.5	5	5	2	3	4	1
30 - 39	4.5	4.5	1.5	2.5	2.5	4.5	4.5	2	3	1
40 - 49	2.5	4	1	2.5	5	5	2.5	2.5	4	1
50 - 59	2	4.5	1	3	4.5	3	5	1	3	3
60 - 70	2.5	4.5	1	4.5	2.5	3	5	1	4	2

TABLE XIV

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN AN OPEN GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	3	14	9	14	4	10	11	4	10	10
30 - 39	10	10	16	17	10	12	14	6	7	24
40 - 49	16	13	29	34	11	20	23	15	16	29
50 - 59	18	17	23	22	18	12	15	11	29	31
60 - 70	1	7	8	9	4	6	5	3	7	8

TABLE XV

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN AN OPEN GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	6	8	7	6	18	10	2	11	8	14
30 - 39	13	10	7	11	21	13	11	14	11	13
40 - 49	18	31	10	8	34	16	30	18	13	22
50 - 59	15	18	11	16	34	16	20	15	15	29
60 - 70	6	3	2	4	13	6	4	2	5	12

When the sex categories in an "open" group were tested for agreement on the roles of the principal and the superintendent, there was no significant agreement. (See Table XVI). Although the agreement was not significant, Mr. Green was ranked first by both males and females for the role of the principal and Mr. Gray was ranked first for the role of the superintendent by both groups. (See Table XVII). The first ranks and the last ranks for the roles of the principal and the superintendent are indicated in Table XVIII and Table XIX respectively.

TABLE XVI

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN AN OPEN GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Male	0.00366	0.00387
Female	0.00390	0.00350

When analyzed by teaching experience, the over 20 year experience-group significantly agreed on the leadership style for the role of the principal and the superintendent. The 0 to 6 year experience-group also significantly agreed on the leadership style for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XX). Mr. Green was ranked first by the over 20 year experience-group for both the roles of the principal and the superintendent. The 0 to 6 year experience group

TABLE XVII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN AN OPEN GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	2	4.5	1	3	4.5	5	2	3	4	1
Female	4	3	1	2	5	5	2	3	4	1

TABLE XVIII

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN AN OPEN GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	27	18	28	16	21	12	22	18	15	43
Female	18	22	48	21	27	18	21	28	11	58

TABLE XIX

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN AN OPEN GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	21	20	20	13	30	28	18	17	17	26
Female	24	31	16	21	40	30	28	21	25	29

TABLE XX

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
0 - 6	0.00869	0.02802[2]
7 - 13	0.00614	0.02130
14 - 20	0.03165	0.00491
20+	0.18538[1]	0.16712[3]

[1] $\chi^2=24.47$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[2] $\chi^2= 9.75$; Sig at $P \geq 0.05$, 4 d.f.

[3] $\chi^2=22.06$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

ranked Mr. Gray first for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XXI). Mr. Green received the most first place votes from the over 20 year experience-group for the role of the principal while the same group gave Mr. Gray the most first place votes for the role of the superintendent, although he did not rank first in the summated ratings. The 0 to 6 year experience group gave Mr. Gray a large proportion, 46 per cent, of first place votes. (See Table XXII). Mr. Green received no last place votes for the roles of the principal or the superintendent from the over 20 year age-group. Mr. Gray received the most last place votes for the role of the superintendent from the 0 to 6 age group which contrasted with his receiving the most first place votes from the same group. (See Table XXIII).

TABLE XXI

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	4	2	1	3	5	5	2	3	4	1
7 - 13	2	4	1	3	5	4.5	2	3	4.5	1
14 - 20	2	4	1	3	5	4	1	2	4	4
20+	4	5	1	2.5	2.5	5	4	1	3	2

TABLE XXII

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	10	15	30	12	17	7	17	17	4	39
7 - 13	22	15	20	15	16	12	14	14	13	35
14 - 20	11	7	10	7	7	8	9	7	4	14
20+	2	3	16	3	8	3	3	8	5	13

When analyzed according to teaching level, the elementary teachers significantly agreed on the leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. (See Table XXIV). The "open" group elementary teachers ranked Mr. Green first for the role of the principal and

TABLE XXIII

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	12	12	18	11	28	16	13	18	14	21
7 - 13	17	19	14	15	20	19	16	15	18	18
14 - 20	6	11	4	7	12	10	7	5	7	11
20+	10	9	0	1	10	13	10	0	3	5

TABLE XXIV

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Elementary	0.02429[1]	0.03616[2]
Secondary	0.02245	0.00723

[1] χ^2=15.26; Sig at P$\geq$ 0.01, 4 d.f.

[2] χ^2=22.71; Sig at P$\geq$ 0.001,4 d.f.

Mr. Gray first for the role of the superintendent. Although not significant, the secondary teachers ranked Mr. Green in a tie with Mr. Black for first place for the role of the principal and Mr. Gray in first place for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XXV). Both the elementary and the secondary groups gave the most first place votes to

TABLE XXV

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	4.5	4.5	1	2.5	2.5	5	3	2	4	1
Secondary	1.5	3.5	1.5	3.5	5	5	2	3.5	3.5	1

Mr. Green for the role of the principal and to Mr. Gray for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XXVI). The elementary teachers gave Mr. Gray the most last place votes for the role of the principal and Mr. Black the most last place votes for the role of the superintendent. The secondary teachers gave the most last place votes to Mr. Gray for both the roles of principal and the superintendent. (See Table XXVII).

TABLE XXVI

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	24	23	52	26	30	20	22	31	16	66
Secondary	21	18	24	11	18	10	21	15	11	35

TABLE XXVII

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN AN OPEN GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	32	34	20	27	37	40	31	21	31	29
Secondary	14	17	16	7	33	19	15	17	11	26

Hypothesis 3 was: The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in a "closed" group is a matter of chance. Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W, was used to determine the amount of agreement within a group. The sub-hypothesis for each independent variable was tested. The required chi square value for significance at the $P \geq .05$ was 9.49.

The sub-hypothesis concerning organization-role was tested in four categories for agreement on leadership styles for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. The Service Bureaucrat category for the role of the principal was the only category that agreed significantly. (See Table XXVIII). The summated rankings in Table XXIX show that the Service Bureaucrat category ranked Mr. Green and Mr. White in a tie for the role of the principal. All the other groups did not significantly agree on any particular style of leadership. The Service Bureaucrat category gave the most

TABLE XXVIII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A CLOSED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Service Bureaucrat	0.04643[1]	0.00564
Functional Bureaucrat	0.14693	0.07346
Job Bureaucrat	0.08038	0.02540
Alienated	0.04666	0.06666

[1] χ^2=56.65; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

TABLE XXIX

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A CLOSED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	4	3	1.5	1.5	5	4	2	5	3	1
Functional Bureaucrat	4.5	3	2	1	4.5	5	3.5	3.5	1	2
Job Bureaucrat	1.5	5	1.5	3	4	5	4	2	1	3
Alienated	5	4	1	2.5	2.5	5	2.5	2.5	1	4

first place votes to Mr. Green and the fewest first place votes to Mr. Gray for the role of the principal. (See Table XXX). The same group gave Mr. Gray the most last place votes and Mr. Green fewest last place votes for the role of the principal. (See Table XXXI).

TABLE XXX

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A CLOSED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	42	58	78	82	38	21	25	28	20	70
Functional Bureaucrat	0	2	1	2	1	0	0	2	2	2
Job Bureaucrat	6	1	5	9	5	8	13	14	4	24
Alienated	0	0	0	1	2	1	4	1	0	2

When the age-group categories were tested for agreement on the choice of leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent in a "closed" group no significance was noted for the role of the superintendent. All age-groups except the 30 to 39 age-group significantly agreed on the leadership style for the role of the principal as indicated by Table XXXII. The summated rankings in Table XXXIII show that the 20 to 29 age-group ranked

TABLE XXXI

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A CLOSED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	49	58	36	42	106	50	57	56	50	79
Functional Bureaucrat	2	1	0	0	3	1	2	0	0	3
Job Bureaucrat	5	9	0	3	9	6	7	3	2	7
Alienated	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	1

TABLE XXXII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A CLOSED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
20 - 29	0.05900[1]	0.04803
30 - 39	0.02233	0.02419
40 - 49	0.08702[2]	0.00865
50 - 59	0.02653[3]	0.02095
60 - 70	0.10351[4]	0.06210

[1] $\chi^2=10.62$; Sig at $P \geq 0.05$, 4 d.f.

[2] $\chi^2=36.20$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[3] $\chi^2=10.40$; Sig at $P \geq 0.05$, 4 d.f.

[4] $\chi^2=12.84$; Sig at $P \geq 0.02$, 4 d.f.

TABLE XXXIII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A CLOSED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	4	1.5	3	1.5	5	5	1	4	2.5	2.5
30 - 39	3.5	3.5	1.5	1.5	5	3	2	5	4	1
40 - 49	3	4	2	1	5	3.5	3.5	5	2	1
50 - 59	4	3	1	2	5	5	4	3	1	2
60 - 70	4	3	1	2	5	4	3	1	2	5

Mr. Brown and Mr. White in a tie for first place. The 40 to 49 age-group selected Mr. White in first place, while the 50 to 59 and the 60 to 70 age-groups selected Mr. Green in first place. Although the summated ranks do not show Mr. Green to be the first choice of the 20 to 29 and the 40 to 49 age-groups, they both gave him the most first place votes. (See Table XXXIV). The 20 to 29 age-group gave Mr. Green the second highest number of last place votes, while the 40 to 49, 50 to 59, and the 60 to 70 age-groups all gave Mr. Green the fewest number of last place votes. (See Table XXXV).

When the sex categories in a "closed" group were tested for agreement on the choice of leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent there was significant agreement for the role of the principal by both

TABLE XXXIV

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A CLOSED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	5	14	19	8	9	3	12	12	2	26
30 - 39	12	11	17	14	15	8	11	16	7	27
40 - 49	21	10	22	9	12	13	10	10	10	31
50 - 59	5	4	9	6	8	5	8	4	5	10
60 - 70	2	1	9	0	4	1	2	4	2	7

TABLE XXXV

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A CLOSED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	9	8	13	8	16	11	7	16	8	12
30 - 39	11	16	12	9	18	14	15	12	12	15
40 - 49	18	14	9	10	20	22	11	7	13	18
50 - 59	4	7	2	5	11	6	6	3	6	9
60 - 70	3	6	0	2	5	5	7	0	3	1

males and females. (See Table XXXVI). The male group ranked Mr. White in first place with Mr. Green in second place. The female group reversed this order and ranked Mr. Green first and Mr. White second. Both groups ranked Mr. Gray last for the role of the principal. (See Table XXXVII). The male group gave Mr. Green and Mr. White the same number of first place votes while the female group gave the most first place votes to Mr. White, although Mr. Green had a higher summated ranking. (See Table XXXVIII). The male group gave Mr. White the fewest last ranks with Mr. Green a close second. The female group gave the fewest last place votes to Mr. Green. (See Table XXXIX).

TABLE XXXVI

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A CLOSED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Male	0.05495[1]	0.00253
Female	0.04134[2]	0.00785

[1] $\chi^2=23.08$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[2] $\chi^2=39.19$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

TABLE XXXVII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A CLOSED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	3	4	2	1	5	4.5	1.5	3	4.5	1.5
Female	4	3	1	2	5	5	3	4	1.5	1.5

TABLE XXXVIII

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A CLOSED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	14	23	27	27	13	23	21	11	18	31
Female	35	38	58	69	34	37	47	28	51	71

TABLE XXXIX

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A CLOSED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	17	25	11	9	41	23	18	15	18	28
Female	41	45	26	36	79	38	49	45	34	62

When analyzed by teaching experience, all categories for the leadership style of the principal were significant. The least experienced and the most experienced groups significantly agreed on the leadership style for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XL). Mr. Green was ranked first for the role of the principal by the 7 to 13 and the over 20 experience-groups and Mr. White was ranked first by the 0 to 6 and the 14 to 20 experience-groups. All categories ranked Mr. Gray in last place. The 0 to 6 experience-group ranked Mr. Brown first and Mr. Gray second while the over 20 experience-group ranked Mr. Gray first. Mr. Green was ranked last by the 0 to 6 experience-group and Mr. Brown was ranked last by the over 20 experience-group. (See Table XLI). Although Mr. Green was ranked first for principal in the summated rankings, he did not receive the most first place votes from any category. Mr. Gray received the most first place choices by the least experienced and the most experienced groups. (See Table XLII). Mr. Gray received the most last place votes for principal in each experience category. In the over 20 experience-group category, Mr. Gray received the most last place votes which contrasts with the fact that the same group gave him the most first place votes. The 0 to 6 experience-group only failed by two choices to give Mr. Gray the most last place votes after awarding him the most first place votes for the role of superintendent. (See Table XLIII).

TABLE XL

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
0 - 6	0.03144[1]	0.12089[5]
7 - 13	0.06346[2]	0.00656
14 - 20	0.06573[3]	0.01450
20+	0.04369[4]	0.08435[6]

[1] χ^2=11.82; Sig at $P \geq 0.02$, 4 d.f.
[2] χ^2=14.72; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.
[3] χ^2=20.25; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[4] χ^2=19.75; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[5] χ^2=45.46; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[6] χ^2=38.13; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

TABLE XLI

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	4	3	2	1	5	4	1	5	3	2
7 - 13	4	3	1	2	5	5	2	4	2	2
14 - 20	4	3	2	1	5	5	1	3	4	2
20+	3	4	1	2	5	3	5	4	2	1

TABLE XLII

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	15	19	24	25	10	20	22	8	16	28
7 - 13	5	11	15	18	8	8	14	9	11	15
14 - 20	8	15	19	25	10	10	18	12	12	25
20+	20	16	27	28	19	22	14	10	30	34

TABLE XLIII

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	15	17	14	14	32	17	14	24	15	22
7 - 13	8	12	6	8	24	11	13	11	9	14
14 - 20	21	14	6	8	26	20	12	7	14	20
20+	14	27	11	15	38	15	28	18	14	34

The agreement for the role of the principal by teaching level was significant in both categories while the elementary teachers almost agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the superintendent. The level of agreement of the elementary teachers was 0.06, which is just below the level of significance selected for this study. It is included for information only. (See Table XLIV).

TABLE XLIV

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Elementary	0.33552[1]	0.01377
Secondary	0.04578[2]	0.00253

[1] χ^2=228.16; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[2] χ^2= 31.50; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, f d.f.

Both elementary and secondary teachers ranked Mr. Green and Mr. White in a tie for first place for the role of the principal while ranking Mr. Gray in last place. Although the level of agreement was only significant at the 0.06 level, the elementary teachers did rank Mr. Gray in first place for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XLV). Mr. White received the most first place votes by both elementary and secondary teachers for the role of the principal. Mr. Green was ranked in second place by both

TABLE XLV

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	4	3	1.5	1.5	5	5	3	4	2	1
Secondary	3.5	3.5	1.5	1.5	5	4	1.5	5	3	1.5

categories and only missed being tied for first by one vote in the secondary category. Mr. Gray received the most first place ranks by elementary teachers for the role of the superintendent. (See Table XLVI). Mr. Green received the fewest last place votes for principal by both elementary and secondary teachers. Mr. Gray received the most last place votes for principal in each category. Mr. Gray received the most last place votes for superintendent after having received the most first place votes from the same group. (See Table XLVII).

TABLE XLVI

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	24	30	39	49	25	23	32	19	40	54
Secondary	24	30	46	47	22	37	36	20	28	48

TABLE XLVII

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A CLOSED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	24	29	20	27	63	26	34	30	29	46
Secondary	33	41	17	18	57	34	33	30	23	44

Hypothesis 4 was: The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in a group composed of all teachers is a matter of chance. Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W, was used to determine the amount of agreement within a group. The sub-hypothesis for each independent variable was tested. The required chi square value for significance at $P \geq .05$ was 9.49.

Teachers in both the "open" and "closed" systems significantly agreed on the leadership style for the principal. The "closed" group placed Mr. Green in first place while the "open" group selected both Mr. Green and Mr. White for the top position. Both groups ranked Mr. Gray in last place for the role of the principal. Only the "open" group significantly agreed on the leadership style for the superintendent. (See Table XLVIII). This group selected Mr. Gray for their first choice which contrasted to their choice

TABLE XLVIII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SYSTEMS IN A COMBINED GROUP

SYSTEM	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Open	0.01713[1]	0.01960[3]
Closed	0.04353[2]	0.00349

[1] χ^2=17.41; Sig at P≥ 0.01, 4 d.f.
[2] χ^2=59.56; Sig at P≥ 0.001, 4 d.f.
[3] χ^2=19.92; Sig at P≥ 0.001, 4 d.f.

of last for him for the role of the principal. Although it is only significant at the 0.01 level, the "closed" group also ranked Mr. Gray first for the role of the superintendent after having ranked him last for the role of the principal. (See Table XLIX).

TABLE XLIX

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SYSTEMS IN A COMBINED GROUP

SYSTEM	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Open	4	3	1.5	1.5	5	3.5	3.5	5	2	1
Closed	2	4	1	3	5	5	3	2	4	1

For the role of the principal, the "open" group gave the most first place votes to Mr. Green and the fewest first place votes to Mr. White. The "closed" group gave more first place votes to Mr. White and the fewest first place votes to Mr. Gray. Both groups gave the most first place votes to Mr. Gray for the role of the superintendent while the "open" group gave the fewest first place votes to Mr. White and the "closed" group gave the fewest first place votes to Mr. Green, the style they had ranked at the top for the role of the principal. (See Table L).

TABLE L

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SYSTEM IN A COMBINED GROUP

SYSTEM	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Open	45	40	76	37	48	30	43	46	26	101
Closed	48	61	85	96	47	60	68	39	69	102

Both groups gave the most last place votes to Mr. Gray for the role of the principal. The "open" group gave Mr. Black the most last place votes but that was only three more votes than Mr. Gray received after Mr. Gray had received the most first place votes. (See Table LI).

The sub-hypothesis concerning organization-role was tested in four categories for the roles of the principal and

TABLE LI

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SYSTEM IN A COMBINED GROUP

SYSTEM	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Open	45	51	36	34	70	58	46	38	42	55
Closed	58	70	37	45	120	61	67	60	52	90

the superintendent. The Service Bureaucrat category was significant for both the roles of the principal and the superintendent. (See Table LII). The Service Bureaucrat category ranked Mr. Green first and Mr. Gray last for the role of the principal. For the role of the superintendent, they ranked Mr. Gray first, Mr. Black last, and Mr. Green, who had been given the top rank for the role of the principal, next to last. (See Table LIII). The most first place votes went to Mr. Green for the role of the principal while Mr. Gray received the fewest first place votes. Mr. Gray received the most first place votes for superintendent and Mr. Green received the fewest first place votes. (See Table LIV). Mr. Gray, who had been ranked last and had received the fewest first place votes for the role of the principal also received the most last place votes. Mr. Gray not only received the top rank and the most first place votes for the role of the superintendent, he also received the most last place votes for the same role. (See Table LV).

TABLE LII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A COMBINED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Service Bureaucrat	0.0313[1]	0.00917[2]
Functional Bureaucrat	0.05244	0.05155
Job Bureaucrat	0.02238	0.01155
Alienated	0.07222	0.0555

[1] $\chi^2=60.13$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[2] $\chi^2=17.62$; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.

TABLE LIII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A COMBINED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	4	3	1	2	5	5	2	4	3	1
Functional Bureaucrat	5	3	1	2	4	5	4	2.5	1	2.5
Job Bureaucrat	2	4.5	1	3	4.5	5	3	1.5	4	1.5
Alienated	3.5	5	1	2	3.5	5	2	3	1	4

TABLE LIV

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A COMBINED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	72	84	130	109	97	75	84	64	77	163
Functional Bureaucrat	0	2	4	3	3	0	2	2	3	5
Job Bureaucrat	18	12	23	18	18	13	18	17	13	28
Alienated	3	2	2	1	3	1	5	1	2	2

TABLE LV

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY ORGANIZATION-ROLE IN A COMBINED GROUP

ORGANIZATION-ROLE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Service Bureaucrat	80	93	57	64	152	88	89	80	75	117
Functional Bureaucrat	3	2	2	0	5	4	3	1	0	4
Job Bureaucrat	14	20	12	14	28	18	17	14	18	21
Alienated	2	3	1	1	4	3	2	2	1	2

The sub-hypothesis concerning age was tested in five categories for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. The 40 to 49, 50 to 59, and 60 to 70 age-groups each agreed significantly on the role of the principal. The 20 to 29, 50 to 59, and 60 to 70 age-groups agreed significantly on the role of the superintendent. (See Table LVI). The 40 to 49 age-groups ranked Mr. Green and Mr. White in a tie for first place while the 50 to 59 and the 60 to 70 age-groups gave first place to Mr. Green and second place to Mr. White. All three age categories ranked Mr. Gray last. The 20 to 29 age-group ranked Mr. Gray first, the 50 to 59 age-group ranked him fourth, and the 60 to 70 age-group placed him in a tie for second with Mr. Brown. (See Table LVII). All three age-groups who agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the principal gave Mr. Green the most first place votes. All three age-groups who agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the superintendent gave Mr. Gray the most first place votes. (See Table LVIII). Mr. Gray received the most last place votes with Mr. Green the fewest last place votes for the role of the principal. Although Mr. Gray received the most first place votes from the 20 to 29 age-group, he only needed one more vote to tie for the most last place votes for the role of the superintendent. The 50 to 59 and the 60 to 70 age-groups gave Mr. Gray the most last place votes after giving him the most first place votes for the same role. (See Table LIX).

TABLE LVI

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A COMBINED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
20 - 29	0.02126	0.04274[4]
30 - 39	0.01107	0.01548
40 - 49	0.05133[1]	0.00808
50 - 59	0.02753[2]	0.09517[5]
60 - 70	0.08848[3]	0.05932[6]

[1] χ^2=36.96; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[2] χ^2=14.43; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[3] χ^2=16.99; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[4] χ^2=17.27; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.
[5] χ^2=49.87; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[6] χ^2=11.39; Sig at $P \geq 0.05$, 4 d.f.

TABLE LVII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A COMBINED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	4	1	3	2	5	5	2	4	3	1
30 - 39	4	4	1	2	4	4	2	4	4	1
40 - 49	3	4	1.5	1.5	5	5	3.5	3.5	2	1
50 - 59	3	4	1	2	5	3	5	2	1	4
60 - 70	4	3	1	2	5	5	3	1	4	2

TABLE LVIII

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A COMBINED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	8	28	28	22	13	13	23	16	22	36
30 - 39	22	21	33	31	25	20	25	22	14	31
40 - 49	37	23	51	43	23	33	33	25	26	60
50 - 59	23	21	32	28	26	17	23	15	34	41
60 - 70	3	8	17	9	8	7	7	7	9	15

TABLE LIX

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY AGE IN A COMBINED GROUP

AGE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
20 - 29	15	16	20	14	34	21	9	27	16	26
30 - 39	24	26	19	20	39	27	26	26	23	28
40 - 49	36	45	19	18	54	38	41	25	26	40
50 - 59	19	25	13	21	45	22	26	18	21	38
60 - 70	9	9	2	6	18	11	11	2	8	13

Both the male and the female categories agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the principal. Only the female group agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the superintendent. (See Table LX). Both groups ranked Mr. Green first, Mr. White second, and Mr. Gray last for the role of the principal. Although the male group agreement was not significant at $P \gtrsim 0.05$, both groups ranked Mr. Gray first and Mr. Black last. (See Table LXI). Both groups gave Mr. Green the most first place votes for principal and Mr. Gray the most first place votes for superintendent. (See Table XLII). Mr. Gray was given the most last place votes by both groups for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. Mr. Gray was the most popular and the most unpopular style for the role of the superintendent. (See Table LXIII).

TABLE LX

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A COMBINED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Male	0.02467[1]	0.00820
Female	0.03768[2]	0.00901[3]

[1] $\chi^2=21.51$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[2] $\chi^2=56.98$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[3] $\chi^2=13.64$; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.

TABLE LXI

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A COMBINED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	3	4	1	2	5	5	2	3	4	1
Female	4	3	1	2	5	5	3	4	2	1

TABLE LXII

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A COMBINED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	41	41	55	43	34	35	43	29	33	74
Female	52	60	106	90	61	55	68	56	62	129

TABLE LXIII

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY SEX IN A COMBINED GROUP

SEX	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Male	38	45	31	22	71	51	36	32	35	54
Female	65	76	42	57	119	68	77	66	59	91

The sub-hypothesis concerning teaching experience was tested in four categories. All the experience categories agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the principal. Only the 0 to 6 and the over 20 experience-groups agreed significantly for the role of the superintendent. (See Table LXIV).

TABLE LXIV

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
0 - 6	0.19066[1]	0.02070[5]
7 - 13	0.01809[2]	0.01128
14 - 20	0.03662[3]	0.00880
20+	0.05571[4]	0.08245[6]

[1] χ^2=138.04; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[2] χ^2= 10.71; Sig at $P \geq 0.05$, 4 d.f.
[3] χ^2= 17.73; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.
[4] χ^2= 32.54; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.
[5] χ^2= 14.99; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 4 d.f.
[6] χ^2= 48.15; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

All four experience categories ranked Mr. Green, Mr. White, and Mr. Gray first, second, and last respectively for the role of the principal. The 0 to 6 and the over 20 experience groups selected Mr. Gray to be in first place. (See Table LXV). Mr. Green received the most first place

TABLE LXV

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	4	3	1	2	5	3	2	5	4	1
7 - 13	3	4	1	2	5	5	2	3.5	3.5	1
14 - 20	4	3	1	2	5	5	1	2.5	4	2.5
20+	3	4	1	2	5	4	5	3	2	1

votes in each experience category for the role of the principal. Mr. Gray received the most first place votes for the role of the superintendent from all experience categories. (See Table LXVI). Mr. Gray received the most last place choices for the role of the principal and the superintendent. (See Table LXVII).

TABLE LXVI

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	27	29	32	25	60	33	27	42	29	43
7 - 13	25	31	20	23	44	30	29	26	27	32
14 - 20	27	25	10	15	38	30	19	12	21	31
20+	24	36	11	16	48	26	38	18	17	39

TABLE LXVII

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING EXPERIENCE	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
0 - 6	27	29	32	25	60	33	27	42	29	43
7 - 13	25	31	20	23	44	30	29	26	27	32
14 - 20	27	25	10	15	38	30	19	12	21	31
20+	24	36	11	16	48	26	38	18	17	39

Both the elementary and the secondary teachers agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the principal. Only the elementary teachers agreed significantly on the leadership style for the role of the superintendent. (See Table LXVIII). Both groups ranked Mr. Green, Mr. White, and Mr. Gray in first, second, and last place respectively for the role of the principal. The elementary teachers ranked Mr. Gray first for the role of the superintendent. (See Table LXIX). Mr. Green received the most first place votes from both teaching level categories for the role of the principal and Mr. Gray did the same for the role of the superintendent. (See Table LXX). Mr. Gray again received the most last place votes for the roles of the principal and the superintendent from each group as indicated in Table LXXI.

TABLE LXVIII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
Elementary	0.02543[1]	0.01809[3]
Secondary	0.03142[2]	0.00319

[1] $\chi^2=33.26$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[2] $\chi^2=33.82$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[3] $\chi^2=23.67$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

TABLE LXIX

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	4	3	1	2	5	5	4	2.5	2.5	1
Secondary	3	4	1	2	5	4.5	2	4.5	3	1

TABLE LXX

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	48	53	91	75	55	43	54	50	56	120
Secondary	45	48	70	58	40	47	57	35	39	83

TABLE LXXI

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY TEACHING LEVEL IN A COMBINED GROUP

TEACHING LEVEL	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
Elementary	56	63	40	54	100	66	65	51	60	75
Secondary	47	58	33	25	90	53	48	47	34	70

Hypothesis 5 was: The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by a combined group of all teachers is a matter of chance. Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W, was used to determine the amount of agreement within a group. The required chi square value for significance at $P \geq .05$ was 9.49.

The combined group of all teachers agreed significantly on the leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent as indicated in Table LXXII. The combined group of teachers agreed on Mr. Green for the role of the principal with Mr. Gray in last place. They reversed Mr. Gray's position for the role of the superintendent by ranking him first. (See Table LXXIII). Mr. Green was given the most first place votes and Mr. Black had the most last place votes for the role of the principal. However, Mr. Gray only needed two more last place votes to tie Mr. Black. Mr. Gray did receive the most first place votes for the role of the

TABLE LXXII

THE COEFFICIENT OF CONCORDANCE ON LEADERSHIP STYLE FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY A COMBINED GROUP OF ALL TEACHERS

COMBINED GROUP	PRINCIPAL	SUPERINTENDENT
All Teachers	0.01321[1]	0.00542[2]

[1] $\chi^2=31.51$; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 4 d.f.

[2] $\chi^2=12.93$; Sig at $P \geq 0.02$, 4 d.f.

TABLE LXXIII

SUMMATED RANKINGS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY A COMBINED GROUP OF ALL TEACHERS

COMBINED GROUP	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
All Teachers	3	2	1	4	5	5	2	4	3	1

superintendent and Mr. Green received the fewest first place votes. (See Table LXXIV). Mr. Gray also received the most last place votes for principal and Mr. Green received the fewest last place votes. Although Mr. Gray did receive the most first place votes for the role of the superintendent, he also received the most last place votes for the same role. (See Table LXXV).

Hypothesis 6 was: There is no statistically significant agreement between teachers with different school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience,

TABLE LXXIV

FIRST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY A COMBINED GROUP OF ALL TEACHERS

COMBINED GROUP	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
All Teachers	93	101	161	133	95	90	111	85	95	203

TABLE LXXV

LAST RANKS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES FOR THE ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE SUPERINTENDENT BY A COMBINED GROUP OF ALL TEACHERS

COMBINED GROUP	PRINCIPAL					SUPERINTENDENT				
	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry	Blk	Brn	Grn	Wht	Gry
All Teachers	103	121	73	79	190	119	113	98	94	145

and teaching level in their selection of the ideal leadership style. A probability test constructed from a formula based on combination and permutation theory was used to test the agreement between groups. In constructing the ideal leadership style, each teacher selected any ten of the descriptive sentences from the Leadership Style Typology. When two groups selected at least five identical sentences the agreement was significant at $P \geq 0.05$.

The null hypothesis was rejected in every case as indicated in Table LXXVI. School membership and sex were dichotomies and could only be tested in one way.

TABLE LXXVI

NUMBER OF AGREEMENTS BETWEEN GROUPS IN SELECTING THE IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE

COMPARISON GROUPS	NUMBER OF AGREEMENTS
SYSTEM	
Open vs Closed	8****
ORGANIZATION ROLE	
HH vs HL	8****
HH vs LH	6**
HH vs LL	6**
HL vs LH	6**
HL vs LL	5*
LH vs LL	6**
AGE	
20-29 vs 30-39	6**
20-29 vs 40-49	7***
20-29 vs 50-59	6**
20-29 vs 60-70	5*
30-39 vs 40-49	8****
30-39 vs 50-59	9*****
30-39 vs 60-70	8****
40-49 vs 50-59	9*****
40-49 vs 60-70	8****
50-59 vs 60-70	9*****
SEX	
Male vs Female	9*****
TEACHING EXPERIENCE	
0-6 vs 7-13	8****
0-6 vs 14-20	8****
0-6 vs 20+	8****
7-13 vs 14-20	8****
7-13 vs 20+	7***
14-20 vs 20+	8****
TEACHING LEVEL	
Elementary vs Secondary	8****

*χ^2= 7.23; Sig at $P \geq 0.01$, 1 d.f.

**χ^2=12.39; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 1 d.f.

***χ^2=19.00; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 1 d.f.

****χ^2=26.84; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 1 d.f.

*****χ^2=36.12; Sig at $P \geq 0.001$, 1 d.f.

Organization-role was divided into four categories. Each category was tested against each of the others. Age was divided into five categories and each category was tested against each of the others. Teaching experience was divided into four categories and each category was tested against each of the other categories.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine what effect the way teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education had on teachers' organization-role perception and preference for leadership styles. In addition the variables of organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level were tested to determine if these variables influence teacher preference for leadership styles.

As indicated in Tables I through VII there was an unequal distribution among the four organization-role categories. In every instance the Service Bureaucrat category was preferred by more teachers than all other categories combined. All the variables, school membership, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level displayed the same skewed distribution. Corwin,[1] in a study of professionalism in public education found the teachers to be distributed rather evenly among the four roles, from a minimum of twenty-three per cent to a maximum of twenty-eight per cent. This indicated either a regional difference among teachers or a procedural difference in the administration of the instrument that influenced perception of organization-role.

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[1] Corwin, "Militant Professionalism . . .," p. 328.

The data indicated that a difference existed between "open" and "closed" systems in teacher preference for organization-role. Examination of the data in Table I indicated that more teachers in the "open" system perceived themselves to be less professional and less bureaucratic than their counterparts in the "closed" system. These findings indicated that teachers who negotiate with the board of education for salary and policy more frequently perceive themselves as being lower professionally and bureaucratically than do teachers who do not negotiate.

Table II indicated that a difference existed between younger teachers and older teachers in their perception of their organization-role. These findings seemed to indicate that younger teachers more frequently perceive themselves as being lower professionally and bureaucratically than older teachers do.

Table IV indicated that a difference existed between the sexes in their perception of their organization-role. These findings seemed to indicate that male teachers more frequently perceive themselves as being lower both professionally and bureaucratically than female teachers do.

Tables V and VI indicated that a difference existed between the less experienced teachers and the more experienced teachers in their perception of their organization-role. These findings seemed to indicate that the less experienced teachers more frequently perceived themselves as lower professionally than the more experienced teachers do. Apparently teaching experience does not influence the bureaucratic phase of organization-role perception.

Table VII indicated that a difference existed between the elementary teachers and the secondary teachers in their perception of their organization-role. These findings seemed to indicate that secondary teachers more frequently perceive themselves as being lower professionally than elementary teachers do.

An examination of the data in Tables VIII through XI indicated that the Service Bureaucrat organization-role in and "open" group was the only group to agree significantly on a leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. Mr. Green was the choice for the role of the principal and Mr. Gray was the choice for the role of the superintendent. Tables XXVIII through XXXI indicated that the Service Bureaucrat organization-role in a "closed" group agreed significantly on the leadership style for the principal which was the same choice as the "open" group. These findings indicated that the Service Bureaucrat was the only group that could agree significantly and that there was no difference in the choice of leadership style of Service Bureaucrats between the systems.

An examination of the data in Tables XII through XV and XXXII through XXXV indicated that there was no difference in preference for leadership style between teachers in an "open" system and a "closed" system according to age. Four of the five age-group categories in a "closed" system agreed significantly on the role of the principal and no age group agreed on the role of the superintendent. The only age-group that agreed significantly in each system was the 60 to 70 age-group for the role of the principal. Both groups selected Mr. Green as their choice. These findings seemed to indicate generally that being a member of an "open" system or a "closed" system makes no difference in the way age-groups perceive the leadership style for the role of the principal and the superintendent.

Tables XX through XXIII and XL through XLIII indicated that similar experience groups in different systems that agreed significantly did not agree according to the summated ratings on the same leadership style for either the role of the principal or the superintendent, however the first and last ranks indicate that there is rather general agreement on leadership style.

Data in Tables XLVIII through LI indicated that there is no difference between teachers in an "open" system or a "closed" system in the preference for a leadership style for the role of the principal and the superintendent. Both systems selected Mr. Green for the role of principal and Mr. Gray for the role of the superintendent. Both the "open" and "closed" systems ranked Mr. Gray first for the role of the superintendent after ranking him last for the role of the principal. These findings seemed to indicate that generally organizational structure makes no difference in the way teachers perceive the leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. However, there is a difference in the perceived leadership style for the different roles of the principal and the superintendent in each system and this difference is the same for each system.

An examination of the data in Tables LII through LVI indicated that there is a difference in the perceived leadership styles for the different roles of the principal and the superintendent. The organization-role categories other than the Service Bureaucrats contained so few teachers that a comparison between the Service Bureaucrats with other organization-roles would not have been meaningful.

Tables LVI through LVII indicated that the same leadership style, Mr. Green, representing the non-directive style, was preferred more often for first place by each age group than any other style for the role of the principal. The same leadership style, Mr. Gray representing the charismatic style, was preferred more often for first place by each age group than any other style for the role of the superintendent. Mr. Gray also received the most last place votes from every age-group for the role of the principal. He almost repeated the distinction of the most last place votes for the role of the superintendent except that he lost by one vote in one category. Generally, difference in age does not make a difference in the way teachers perceive the leadership styles for the roles of the principal and the superintendent.

An examination of the data in Tables LX through LXIII indicated that males and females preferred the same leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. Mr. Green, the non-directive type, was preferred for the role of the principal with Mr. Gray, the charasmatic type, in last place. For the role of the superintendent, Mr. Gray was picked first by both groups. Generally, sex does not make a difference in the perception of leadership styles for the role of the principal and the superintendent.

The data in Tables LXIV through LXVII indicated that all the teaching-experience groups preferred the same leadership style, Mr. Green, for the role of the principal. Mr. Gray was ranked last for the role of the principal. All the teaching-experience groups preferred the same leadership style, Mr. Gray, for the role of the superintendent and at the same time gave him the most last place votes. These findings seemed to indicate that generally teaching experience makes no difference in the way teachers perceive the leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent.

The data in Tables LXIX through LXXI indicated that the permissive leadership style, Mr. Green, was selected by both elementary and secondary teachers for the role of the principal while the charasmatic style, Mr. Gray, was rejected. The elementary teachers selected Mr. Gray for the role of the superintendent and give last place to Mr. Black. The secondary teachers selected Mr. Gray for the role of the superintendent with Mr. Black and Mr. Green tying for last place. These findings seemed to indicate that generally teaching level makes no difference in the way teachers perceive the leadership style for the role of the principal and the superintendent.

Summary

The major findings may be summarized as follows:

1. The teachers in the schools that negotiate with the board of education for salary and policy more frequently perceive themselves to have a lower professional role and bureaucratic role than teachers in the less organized schools.

2. The majority of the teachers (80.2 per cent) are classified as Service Bureaucrats (High professionally and high bureaucratically).

3. A difference does exist between younger teacher and older teachers in their perception of their organizational-role with the younger teachers more frequently perceiving

themselves as being lower professionally and bureaucratically.

4. A difference does exist between males and females in their perception of their organizational-role, with the males more frequently perceiving themselves to be lower professionally and bureaucratically.

5. A difference does exist between the less experienced and the more experienced teachers in their perception of their professional role, with the younger teachers more frequently perceiving themselves to be lower professionally.

6. A difference does exist between the elementary teachers and the secondary teachers in their perception of their professional-role, with the secondary teachers more frequently perceiving themselves to be lower professionally.

7. The confounding variables: organizational-role, age, and sex, are not significant when school membership is the independent variable and leadership style is the dependent variable.

8. Teaching experience and teaching level are significant confounding variables when the independent variable is school membership and the dependent variable is leadership style.

9. Organization structure does not make a difference in the preference for leadership style.

10. Generally all groups prefer a different leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent.

11. When considered as independent variables, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level make no difference in the preference for leadership style.

12. There is significant agreement between groups in the selection of behavior descriptions in the construction of the ideal leadership style.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Teachers are in the process of changing the control structure of school systems as the trend is toward increased collective action among public school teachers. As teachers gain more control, they may perceive a different leadership style for the administrative hierarchy.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a difference in the way that teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influences teacher role perception and preference for leadership styles. In addition, the variables of sex, age, teaching experience, and teaching level were examined to determine the extent to which they influence perceived roles and leadership style preference. Four sub-problems of this study were:

1. To determine whether differences in the way teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influence teacher role perceptions.

2. To determine whether differences in the way teachers have organized as a professional group in relation to the school administration and the local board of education influence leadership style preference.
3. To determine whether differences in organization roles influence leadership style preference.
4. To determine whether differences in sex, age, teaching experience, teaching level, organization role, and school membership influence preferences for the ideal leadership style.

Six school systems, three in Oklahoma with 380 teachers and three in California with 390 teachers, were chosen as the population for this study. The schools were chosen to be as similar as possible except that teachers either did or did not negotiate on matters of salary and policy. The schools in California were classified as "open" schools as the teacher groups do have a greater degree of control over salary and policy than do their counterparts in Oklahoma because of their right to negotiate. The Oklahoman schools are referred to as "closed" schools. The administration requested the teachers to cooperate in the study by completing questionnaires. The difference in compliance between the "open" and "closed" system is indicated in the per cent of returns from each. Oklahoma had a 90 per cent return and California a 65.1 per cent return. (See Appendix C).

Two questionnaire-type instruments were used to collect the data for the study. The Professional and Bureaucratic-Employee Conception Scale provided the organization-role orientations of each teacher. (See Appendix B). The Leadership Style Inventory provided the choices of leadership styles for the roles of the superintendent and the principal and the description of the ideal leadership style. (See Appendix B). Each major scale, the professional and bureaucratic-employee, discriminated between respondents who exemplified logical extremes of professional and bureaucratic-employee conduct.

The χ^2 test for k independent samples was used to determine whether different samples of teacher groups based on school membership, sex, age, teaching experience, and teaching level differ in the frequency with which they choose certain organization-roles and therefore come from different populations. The Kendall coefficient of concordance was used to determine the amount of agreement among the members of each group in the rankings of leadership styles for the roles of the superintendent and the principal according to school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching level, and teaching experience.

In constructing the Ideal Leadership Style, the members of each group selected any ten descriptive sentences from the fifty sentences in the Leadership Style Typology. The ten sentences having the highest frequency count from a particular group were selected as representing the ideal leadership style of that group. Different teacher groups, according to school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level,were compared to see if the agreement on selected descriptive sentences was greater than chance. The question was: What is the expected probability of ten things taken ten at a time from a group of fifty agreeing with ten things taken ten at a time from a similar group of fifty? A probability table was constructed from a formula based on combination and permutation theory. This table shows that if five things agree when taken ten at a time from similar groups of fifty, it is significant at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Data were gathered and the following null hypothesis were tested:

1. There is no statistically significant difference in the organization-role distribution of teachers according to school membership, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level.

2. The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in an "open" group is a matter of chance.

3. The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in a "closed" group is a matter of chance.

4. The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by school membership, organization-role,

age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level in a group composed of all teachers is a matter of chance.

5. The observed agreement among the rankings of leadership styles by a combined group of all teachers is a matter of chance.

6. There is no statistically significant agreement on the ideal leadership style between teachers according to school membership, organization-role, age, sex, teaching experience, and teaching level.

Conclusions

The underlying purpose of this study was to determine whether a difference in the way teachers have organized in regard to the school administration and the board of education influences their perception of leadership style and organization-role. Other purposes of this study were to determine whether the variables of age, sex, teaching level, and teaching experience influence teachers' perception of leadership style and organization-role.

1. Perception of organization-role is influenced by the difference in the way the teachers groups in the "open" and "closed" systems have organized. In the schools where negotiations for salary and policy occur the teachers more frequently perceive their role as being less professional and less bureaucratic than the teachers who do not negotiate. A higher percentage of teachers in the "closed" system stress

primary loyalty to students and accept responsibility for making policy decisions than in the "open" systems. Also a higher percentage of teachers in the "closed" system stress standardization of work and a centralized decision making process than in the "open" system. This runs counter to the generally accepted idea that as teachers gain more control they also become more professional. Here the group with more control has a greater percentage of low professionally oriented teachers.

This distribution is different from that found by Corwin in a study of teachers in Ohio and Michigan. In this study, 80 per cent of the respondents were Service Bureaucratics, high professional and high bureaucratic, while Corwin only classified 26 per cent in this category. This suggests either a difference in the administration of the questionnaire or an area difference in teachers' perception of the professional and the bureaucratic role. Corwin interviewed 146 teachers and used 257 questionnaires while the data for this study were collected entirely by questionnaires. These questionnaires were distributed by the administration and teachers were encouraged to participate in the study.

2. The younger, less experienced, male secondary teachers in an "open" system more frequently perceive their role as being less professional and less bureaucratic than other teachers do.

The young teacher more frequently is found to be less professionally oriented than the older more-experienced teacher. In fact, as teaching experience increases the trend is for more teachers to have a high professional orientation. Male teachers and secondary teachers more frequently rank low professionally than do their counterparts. However, since the composition of the elementary teaching staff is predominately female, and the secondary teaching staff is rather evenly balanced in this regard, the elementary teachers also exhibit any existing sex differences.

3. Teachers prefer a different leadership style for the roles of the principal and the superintendent. The non-directive, permissive leadership style was preferred for the role of the principal and the charasmatic leadership style was preferred for the role of the superintendent.

No evidence in the literature indicated a different leadership style for the principal and the superintendent but this writer felt that to classify both roles under the title of administrator would be of too general a nature and possibly conceal more information than it would reveal.

4. Differences in organizational structure, age, sex, teaching level, and teaching experience do not make a difference in the preference for leadership styles for the roles of the principal and the superintendent.

Although one organizational structure does guarantee to the teachers the right to negotiate on matters of salary and policy, the teachers do not perceive leadership styles any differently than teachers who do not exercise such control.

5. There is agreement between all groups of teachers on the behavior that is preferred for the Ideal Leadership Style. The choices did not over-represent any one particular leadership style which could explain the unusually highly significant agreement between groups. Each leadership style was represented. The ten sentences preferred by the combined group of teachers are indicated by circles on the Leadership Behavior Dimension Matrix. (See Appendix D). Recalling that one leadership style was the choice of the combined group of teachers for the role of the principal while another style was selected for the role of the superintendent, makes this all more meaningful. Apparently certain behavioral acts are preferred by teachers regardless of age, sex, teaching experience, teaching level, organization-role, or the amount of control they may exercise.

Recommendations

Findings and conclusions of this study support the following recommendations:

1. Since this study was limited to six selected school districts, it is recommended that future research be representative of regional or national teacher groups.

2. Future research should determine the extent to which size of the school system influences perception of leadership style and organization-role.

3. Future research should pay particular attention to the differences between elementary teachers and secondary teachers in the way they perceive their organization-role.

4. Future research should pay particular attention to hierarchial role when constructing the ideal leadership style.

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APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE RELATED TO THIS STUDY

1621 Beverly Hills
Norman, Oklahoma
73069

Dr. Ronald G. Corwin
Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

Dear Dr. Corwin:

Dr. Robert E. Ohm, College of Education, University of Oklahoma, suggested that I request permission to use your attitude instrument for examining staff conflicts in the public schools.

With your permission, I plan to use your instrument in a doctoral dissertation to investigate leadership style typologies as perceived by staff members holding different attitudes.

Sincerely,

Ray L. Stout
Principal, Lincoln School

RLS/gbd

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
Behavioral Sciences Laboratory
404 B West Seventeenth Avenue
COLUMBUS, OHIO 43210

June 1, 1966

Ray L. Stout
1621 Beverly Hills
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Dear Mr. Stout:

You are welcome to use the instruments which are reported in the monograph THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN INSTRUMENT FOR EXAMINING STAFF CONFLICTS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL for your doctoral dissertation. I assume that you will give the customary line as to the source.

If I can be of any assistance, please feel free to call upon me.

Sincerely yours,

Ronald G. Corwin, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Department of Sociology
and Anthropology

RGC/jl

APPENDIX B

COPY OF INSTRUMENTS USED IN THIS STUDY

Leadership Style Inventory

DIRECTIONS: Refer to the leadership typology form in answering each question.

1. You have been selected as a faculty member of a new school that is to open next year. Which person do you think would do the best job as the principal?

______	______	______	______	______
1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice	5th choice

2. A considerable part of the community has become concerned about the excessive number of teacher resignations. The situation has reached the point where the superintendent has resigned. Rank the five persons for the vacant position.

______	______	______	______	______
1st choice	2nd choice	3rd choice	4th choice	5th choice

3. Assuming that no one of the leadership styles is the best style that could be described, select any 10 sentences from those in the inventory to construct what you believe to be a better leadership style. (Indicate your choices by writing the sentences numbers in the blanks below.)

(1)_____ (6)_____

(2)_____ (7)_____

(3)_____ (8)_____

(4)_____ (9)_____

(5)_____ (10)_____

4. Sex: Male_____, Female_____.

5. Age: 20-29_____, 30-39_____, 40-49_____, 50-59_____,

   60-70_____.

6. Teaching level: k - 6_____, 7 - 12_____.

7. Years teaching experience: 0 - 6_____, 7 - 13_____,

   14 - 20_____, over 20_____.

LEADERSHIP TYPOLOGIES

Mr. Brown

1. He schedules work to be done.
2. He is friendly and energetic.
3. He makes it a pleasure to be a member of the group.
4. He knows what he wants and lets his subordinates know.
5. Decisions are made that reflect school and community values.
6. Decisions are made in accord with policy.
7. He maintains a comfortable but reasonable distance between himself and other members of the group.
8. He sometimes decides to use group participation in decision making.
9. He consults with two or three informal leaders when conflicts arise.
10. He makes frequent interpretation of policy to clarify problems.

Mr. White

11. He works with and through groups and individuals as the situation requires.
12. He is likable, cordial, and enthusiastic.
13. Group members find it easy to talk over their problems with him.
14. He feels he has more responsibility than other members of the group in defining what is to be done.
15. He gets support for his decisions prior to making them.
16. He seems able to guide the group into doing what is necessary.
17. He decides in favor of the individual or the group as the case may be.
18. He tries to get both sides of the issue into the open.
19. He accepts new ideas readily.
20. He sees to it that no fails to do his part.

Mr. Green

21. He creates a climate that helps group members to become more self-directing.
22. He has a warm and ready smile for everyone.
23. He is always ready and willing to listen at any time.
24. He may ignore the agenda in order to get at the real problem of the group.
25. He keeps policy and rules at the bare but necessary minimum.
26. His questions help others to clarify their thinking.
27. He encourages others to take leadership responsibilities.

Mr. Green--Continued.

28. He tries to resolve conflicts by reference to the school's philosophy.
29. He tries to see that everyone knows and follows the rules.
30. He appoints committees to deal with difficult problem situations.

Mr. Black

31. He helps to develop and clarify the purposes of the organization.
32. He is open and unassuming and evokes liking and respect.
33. He works well as either a leader or group member.
34. He tries to resolve conflicts by reference to common goals and values.
35. Teachers frequently confer with him about problems that need to be solved.
36. He frequently checks progress against group objectives.
37. He is not afraid to modify or change decisions when indicated.
38. He explains his actions to the staff.
39. He sees to it that deadlines are met.
40. He discusses major problems with influential staff members prior to their consideration by the faculty.

Mr. Gray

41. He always seems able to decide what needs to be done.
42. He is tall and has a personal magnetism that attracts others.
43. He looks out for the personal welfare of those in the group.
44. His personality and ideas tend to get group agreement on plans and goals.
45. He is almost always able to give the help that others have come to expect.
46. He has an uncommon ability to make the right decisions in difficult places.
47. His vision and keen judgment would make him a leader in any situation.
48. He encourages each group member to enter into the discussion of problems and goals.
49. Staff meetings are short and to the point.
50. He takes the pulse of the commumity before making some decisions.

VIEWS OF THE TEACHER'S WORK ROLE

INSTRUCTIONS

You are being asked to respond to a list of situations provided in "My Views of the Teacher's Work Role". To some situations you are asked to indicate both how you believe things should be and how they actually are at your school (see example below). In other cases, you are asked to respond only once (1) to how things should be (see example below). Indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statements, by circling one of the following alternative answers, ranging from SA, A, U, D, and SD.

Strongly Agree (SA) indicates that you agree with the statement with almost no exceptions.

Agree (A) indicates that you agree with the statement with some exceptions.

Undecided (U) indicates that you could either "agree" or "disagree" with the statement with about an equal number of exceptions in either case.

Disagree (D) indicates that you disagree with the statement with some exceptions.

Strongly Disagree (SD) indicates that you disagree with the statement with almost no exceptions.

An Example (Respond Twice)

Statement #1: (Circle only one)

All teachers should buy mink coats at least once a year. SA/[✓ A]/U/D/SD

A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/[✓ SD]

Another Example (Respond Once)

Statement #2:

All teachers should spend at least one month a year traveling abroad. [✓ SA]/A/U/D/SD

Page 1
(Circle only one)

1. Teachers should adjust their teaching to the administration's views of good educational practice. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school, typically, they do adjust their views. SA/A/U/D/SD

2. The school administration should be better qualified than the teacher to judge what is best for education. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school the administration is generally better qualified. SA/A/U/D/SD

3. Teachers should be obedient, respectful and loyal to the principal. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school the teachers are. SA/A/U/D/SD

4. In case of a dispute in the community over whether a controversial textbook or controversial speaker should be permitted in the school, the teacher should look primarily to the judgment of the administration for guidance. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school, teachers do. SA/A/U/D/SD

5. Personnel who openly criticize the administration should be encouraged to go elsewhere. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school they are. SA/A/U/D/SD

6. Teachers should not be influenced by the opinions of those teachers whose thinking does not reflect the thinking of the administration. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school, typically, they are not. SA/A/U/D/SD

7. The only way a teacher can keep out of "hot water" is to follow the wishes of the top administration. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

(Circle only one)

8. What is best for the school is best for education. SA/A/U/D/SD

9. A good teacher should put the interests of his school above everything else. SA/A/U/D/SD

   A. At my school the good teachers do. SA/A/U/D/SD

10. In case of doubt about whether a particular practice is better than another, the primary test should be what seems best for the overall reputation of the school. SA/A/U/D/SD

11. A good teacher should put the interests of his department above everything else. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school the good teachers do. SA/A/U/D/SD

12. Pay should be in relation to teacher experience. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

13. Often, classroom experience simply gives a teacher the opportunity to practice his mistakes. SA/A/U/D/SD

14. Teachers of the same subject throughout the system should follow the same kind of lesson plans. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case in my system. SA/A/U/D/SD

15. Teachers should teach their course in such a way that a substitute can take over at a moment's notice without serious interruption. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school teachers do. SA/A/U/D/SD

16. The work of a course should be planned that every child taking the same kind of course throughout the state eventually will cover the same material. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

(Circle only one)

17. A good teacher should be able to efficiently teach the children what they need to know in the limited time available. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the definition of a good teacher at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

18. Teachers should be completely familiar with the written descriptions of the rules, procedures, manuals and other standard operating procedures necessary for running the classroom. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school, nearly all teachers are. SA/A/U/D/SD

19. The school should have a manual of rules and regulations which are actually followed. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

20. Rules stating when the teachers should arrive and depart from the building should be strictly enforced. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

21. To prevent confusion and friction among the staff, there should be a rule covering almost every problem that might come up at the school. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

22. There should be definite rules specifying the topics that are not appropriate for discussion in a classroom. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

23. When a controversy arises about the interpretation of school rules, a teacher should not "stick his neck out" by taking a definite position. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school, typically, they do not. SA/A/U/D/SD

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(Circle only one)

24. Teachers should take into account the opinions of their community in guiding what they say in class and in their choice of teaching materials. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school, typically, they do. SA/A/U/D/SD

25. Teachers should not publicly advocate a position on the place of religion in the school which differs greatly from the majority opinion of the community. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school, typically they do not. SA/A/U/D/SD

26. A good teacher is one who conforms, in general, to accepted standards in the community. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school, this is the definition of a good teacher. SA/A/U/D/SD

27. The criterion of a good school should be one that serves the needs of the local community. SA/A/U/D/SD

28. Teachers should not attempt to discuss any controversial issues (such as abolishing the House Un-American Activities Committee) which may jeopardize the school's public relations. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school teachers, typically, do not. SA/A/U/D/SD

29. Local control over schools by school boards represents the most fundamental form of democracy in public education. SA/A/U/D/SD

30. It should be permissible for the teacher to violate a rule if he/she is sure that the best interests of the students will be served in doing so. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school this is permissible. SA/A/U/D/SD

31. Unless she is satisfied that it is best for the student, a teacher should not do what she is told to do. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school, typically, teachers do not do what they are told unless they are convinced that it is best for the student. SA/A/U/D/SD

32. A good teacher should not do anything that he believes may jeopardize the interests of his students regardless of who tells him to or what the rules state. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school, good teachers do not. SA/A/U/D/SD

33. Teachers should try to live up to what they think are the standards of their profession even if the administration or the community does not seem to respect them. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is typically true of the teachers at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

34. One primary criterion of a good school should be the degree of respect that it commands from other teachers around the state. SA/A/U/D/SD

35. A good teacher should try to put his standards and ideals of good teaching into practice even if the rules or procedures of the school prohibit it. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. At my school typically teachers do give priority to their professional ideals. SA/A/U/D/SD

36. Teachers should subscribe to and diligently read the standard professional journals. SA/A/U/D/SD

    A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

(Circle only one)

37. Teachers should be an active member of at least one professional teaching association, and attend most conferences and meetings of the association. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

38. A teacher should consistently practice his/her ideas of the best educational practices even though the administration prefers other views. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school typically teachers do give priority to their own ideas. SA/A/U/D/SD

39. A teacher's skill should be based primarily on his acquaintance with his subject matter. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. This is the basis for judging teachers' skill at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

40. Teachers should be evaluated primarily on the basis of their knowledge of the subject that is to be taught, and their ability to communicate it. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. This is how teachers are evaluated at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

41. Schools should hire no one to teach unless he holds at least a 4-year bachelors degree. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

42. In view of the teacher shortage, it should be permissible to hire teachers trained at non-accredited colleges. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. My school does hire teachers from non-accredited colleges. SA/A/U/D/SD

(Circle only one)

43. A teacher should be able to make his own decisions about problems that come up in the classroom. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school teachers are allowed to make these decisions. SA/A/U/D/SD

44. Small matters should not have to be referred to someone higher up for final answer. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. At my school small matters need not be referred higher up. SA/A/U/D/SD

45. The ultimate authority over the major educational decisions should be exercised by professional teachers. SA/A/U/D/SD

A. This is the case at my school. SA/A/U/D/SD

APPENDIX C

TEACHER POPULATION AND QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN PERCENTAGE

TEACHER POPULATION AND QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN PERCENTAGE BY SEX

SEX	OPEN SCHOOLS		CLOSED SCHOOLS		COMBINED GROUP	
Male	156	72.4%	119	88.2%	275	79.2%
Female	234	60.3%	261	93.1%	495	76.4%
Totals	390	65.1%	380	90.0%	770	77.4%

TEACHER POPULATION AND QUESTIONNAIRE RETURN PERCENTAGE BY TEACHING LEVEL

TEACHING LEVEL	OPEN SCHOOLS		CLOSED SCHOOLS		COMBINED GROUP	
Elementary	212	75.0%	180	94.4%	392	83.4%
Secondary	178	54.5%	200	86.0%	378	71.1%
Totals	390	65.1%	380	90.0%	770	77.4%

APPENDIX D

LEADER BEHAVIOR DIMENSION MATRIX

Leader Behavior Dimension Matrix for 50 Items

		Nomothetic/ Initiating Structure	Pragmatic/ Expedient	Ideographic/ Consideration	Trait	Process/ Goal
Mr. Brown	1	x				
	2				x	
	3			x		
	4	x				
	5	ⓧ				
	6	x				
	7	x				
	8					x
	9		x			
	10	x				
Mr. White	11		x			
	12				x	
	13		ⓧ			
	14		x			
	15		x			
	16		x			
	17		x			
	18					ⓧ
	19			x		
	20	x				
Mr. Green	21			ⓧ		
	22				x	
	23			ⓧ		
	24			x		
	25			ⓧ		
	26			x		
	27			ⓧ		
	28					x
	29	x				
	30		x			
Mr. Black	31					x
	32				x	
	33					x
	34					x
	35					x
	36					x
	37					ⓧ
	38			x		
	39	x				
	40		x			
Mr. Gray	41				x	
	42				x	
	43			x		
	44				x	
	45				x	
	46				ⓧ	
	47				ⓧ	
	48					x
	49	x				
	50		x			